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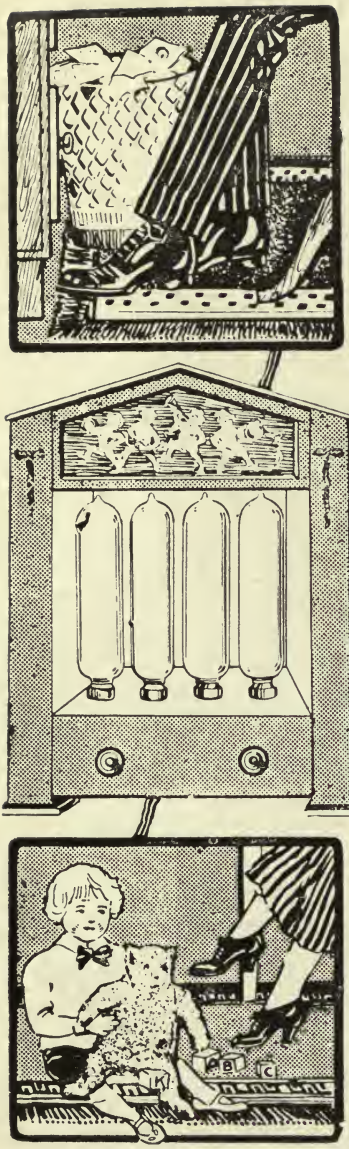

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It may be claimed that we are all "bodies," and all "forces," because we all have influence, and are all subject to influence. But there is a distinction between the man who allows others to influence him against his own judgment, who accepts circumstances, suggestions and opinions without examination or protest, and the man who exercises discretion, and accepts or discards according to the bearing of the suggestions or opinions on the object he has in view.

The object in view! Some people never formulate it! Others do and fail to reach it because of the dead weight of inertia. Others, again, reach it through sheer persistency, after painful and prolonged effort. And yet others attain their object with comparatively little effort and sacrifice because they go the right way about it.

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The mere formulating of your object, the reduction of vague generalities and nebulous ideas to definite words, will show you whether the object is desirable and worth while or not. If it *is* worth while, you must be fit to do the work and bear the strain. Your memory must be good, so that you will benefit by all your acquired knowledge and experience, and so that you will remember details without effort. You must be capable of close and long-continued concentration, so that you lose nothing of the momentum which a good start gives; you must be able to create and maintain interest in the work; you must be quick to decide on, and take advantage of, what will help you.

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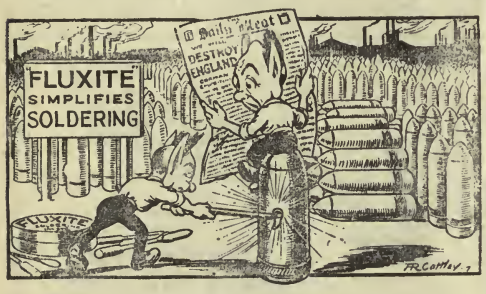

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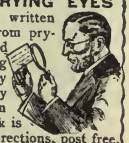

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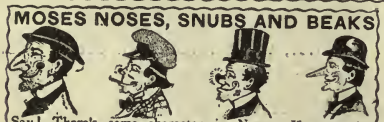

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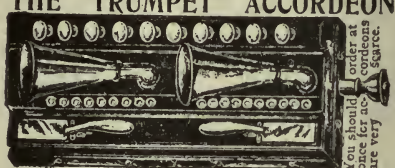

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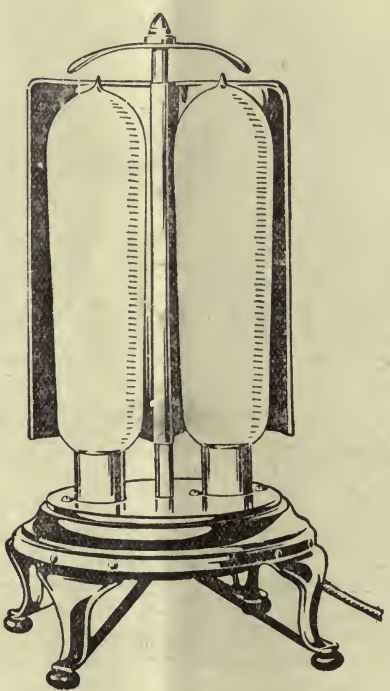

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CONTENTS FOR MAY 26th, 1917.

PAGE

War Scenes ... ... **Frontispiece**

Progress of the World—

Meeting the Submarine Menace 467
The Socialists Get Control in Russia 467
The People Must Decide 468
The First-fruits of Our Democratising Effort 468
No Help from Russia This Year 469
Raising the British Blockade 469
The U.S. Loan to Russia 470
Separate Peace with Turkey? 471
Leave Austria Intact to Secure Peace .. 471
The Allies' War Aims 471
No War Indemnity 473
America to the Rescue—in 1918 473
A "Marking-Time" Speech 474
American Warships in Allied Waters .. 474
Train American Armies in U.S. 474
Our Offensive in the West 475
Superiority in the Air 475

PAGE

Progress of the World (Continued —

Changes in French Command 475
With the Melting of the Snow 476
The Italian Offensive 476
Will Last Year's Drive be Repeated? 476
In Asia Minor 477
Soon £8,000,000 a Day 477

Another Attempt to Settle the Irish Question ... 479
The Repatriation of Our Soldiers 481
What Can I Do to Help My Country? ... 482
History in Caricature 485
Three Notable Frenchmen 491
The Germans in Brazil 495
Is Our Starvation Blockade Effectual? ... 497

(Continued on next page.)

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CONTENTS—Continued from page ix.

	Page
How the British Victory Loan was Rescued from Failure	500
Who will Command the Sea?	501
French View of the Submarine Menace	502
Why This Policy of Rose Water?	504
What Canada Has Done	506
Notable Books	508
Fixing Food Prices	509
Topics of the Day	511
Catechism of the War—XLII.	513
Financial and Business Quarter	517
National Efficiency. By J. A. Butler	519
A Woman's Notebook	521
French Women and the War	522
The "Movies" With the Glamour Off	523
Esperanto: the Help Language	525

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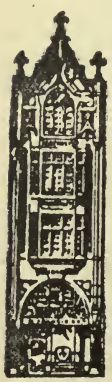

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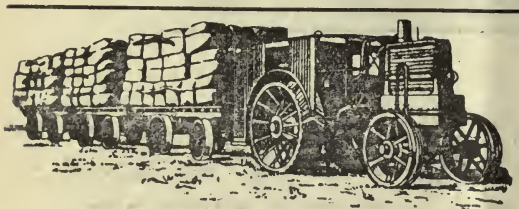

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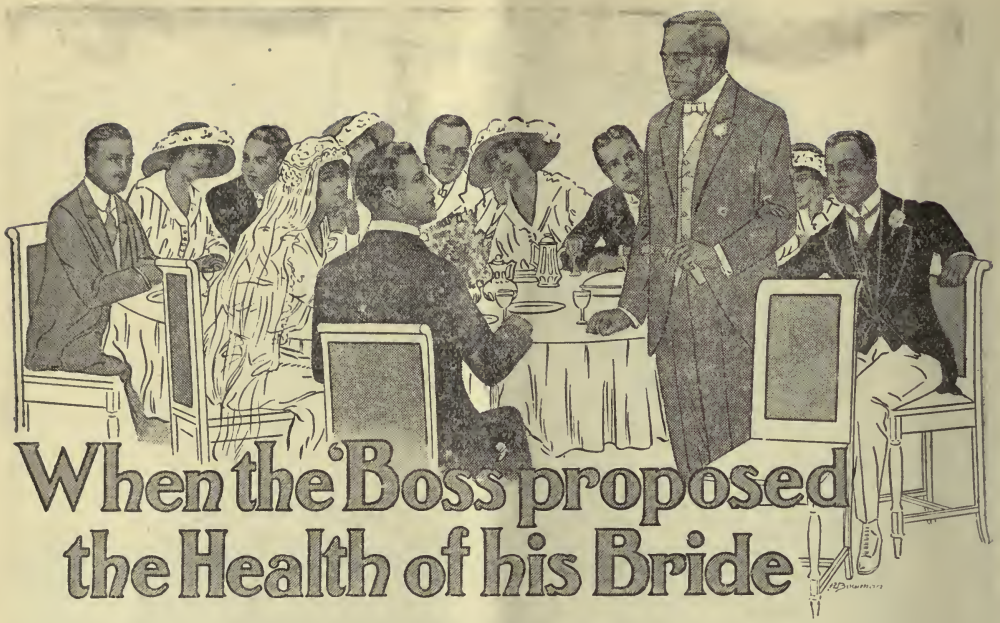

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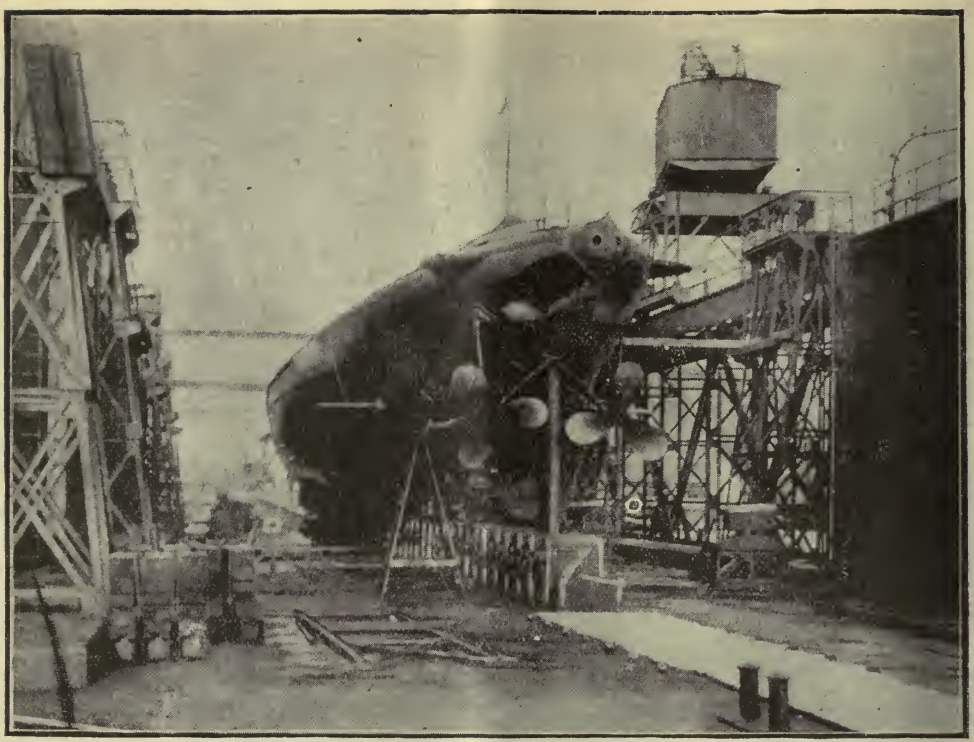


A GERMAN SUBMARINE BEING REPAIRED IN DRY DOCK.
It is no doubt now taking part in the submarine campaign in the Atlantic.

WOMEN CARRIAGE CLEANERS AT ST. LAZARE, PARIS.
Note the upper story on the carriages. These are used only in the outer circle of the city.

MAY 19, 1917.

Meeting the Submarine Menace.

Quite the most cheerful thing in the cables is the announcement that the number of ships sunk each week by the U boats is decreasing. It has been extraordinary how throughout this struggle a serious blow to one side or the other is somehow followed by something which to some extent compensates for it. This has happened again and again, and it looks as if the collapse of Russian effort, which in all probability will mean the raising of our starvation blockade, owing to the opening of the enemy's frontiers to Russian grain, will to some extent be countered by the defeat of the German underwater craft. They may still roam the seas, but evidently the danger from them is being minimised. Thus, though the falling away of Russia will snap our second bow string—that of starvation—the enemy submarine blockade may be rendered of none effect, and the danger, that Britain and France would be unable to get supplies of food and raw materials vanish. So it goes, to and fro. In time, perhaps, the incoming of America may balance the outgoing of Russia! The figures of sinking for the last four weeks show a steady and significent decrease. In view of the tremendous danger involved in any serious interruption in the arrival of supplies in Great Britain, it is surprising that so little emphasis has been laid on the steady decline in sinkings. This falling off is best realised if the weekly totals are assembled as follow :—

Week ending	Over 1600 tons sunk.	Under 1600 tons sunk.
April 27th	40	15
May 4th	38	13
May 11th	24	22
May 18th	18	5

Evidently, then, our preventive measures have, in four weeks, reduced the sinkings by more than half. At the same time we are assured that the weekly losses of U boats are increasing as steadily as their victims are decreasing. It would therefore seem, then, that the submarine menace has been countered, and that the immediate danger of these underwater craft starving our people and our guns has disappeared.

The Socialists Get Control in Russia.

Writing on May 7, for our last number, I set out the terrible danger in which we would stand supposing Russia made a separate peace, and asserted that our only hope lay in the success of the efforts of Miliukoff and his more moderate colleagues to keep in check the leaders of the proletariat, who appeared determined to end the struggle re-

gardless of the promises their former rulers had made to the Allies. Alas, Miliukoff has fallen! Gutchkoff has thrown up the sponge! Other Ministers, too, must have retired to make room for six Socialists, appointees of the Council of Workmen and Soldiers' delegates. The radicals, the extremists, are no longer the tail of the revolutionary dog—they are the head, the controlling force. The Council only consented to come into a coalition Government on certain definite understandings. These are so important that I set them out here:—

(1) Our foreign policy to be conducted with the chief aim of the earliest possible conclusion of a general peace, without annexation or indemnity, and with the right of all nationalities to determine their own fate.

(2) Decisive measures to be taken towards the reconstruction of the army on a democratic basis, and the strengthening of the fighting front in defence of liberty.

(3) The introduction of a series of radical, social, economic and financial reforms.

(4) The calling at the earliest possible moment of a Convention and Constituent Assembly in Petrograd.

(5) The representatives of the Socialists in the Provisional Government to be responsible to the All Russia Congress of the Council of Workmen and Soldiers' Delegates until the convocation of a congress of responsible council leaders in Petrograd.

The People Must Decide.

This same Council had previously issued a manifesto convening an International Socialist Peace Conference. This manifesto must be borne in mind if we would arrive at a true knowledge of what the conditions set forth above really mean. It said:—

The time has come for the beginning of a decisive struggle against the annexation desires of the Governments of all countries. The people must decide the question of war and peace. The Russian democracy proclaims that it will combat, by every means, the policy of conquest advocated by the ruling classes. Workers of all countries, in extending to you a fraternal hand over the mountains of our brothers' corpses and across rivers of innocent blood and tears, we summon you to the renewal of the strengthening of international unity. Therein lie victory and complete freedom.

Obviously the "no annexationists" have complete control in Russia for the moment, and are determined to bring about an end to the struggle as speedily as possible. As I have already pointed out, there is now nothing the Allies can offer a Russia which has definitely renounced all desire for Constantinople or for any territory whatever. Russia can not longer be tempted to go on fighting by promises of spoils—she would not take them even if we were in a position to hand them over to her, not merely promise to let her have them when they had been wrested from the Turk, the Austrian and the German. Russia's object in fighting having entirely disappeared, the Socialists being in virtual control, is it conceivable that she will continue hurling her sons against the bristling battlefront of our foes?

The First-fruits of our Democratising Efforts.

There is a marked bitterness against the Russians manifesting itself, and it is even asserted roundly, in some quarters, that Russia began the war! We know, of course—have we not been told so countless times—that Germany began this war, prepared for it systematically for forty years! How then could Russia have precipitated the struggle? It is useless now to reopen the question, but I must confess to a certain grim satisfaction in reading over what I wrote on the subject in August, 1914. On one thing, however, we are practically all agreed, namely, that the inevitable catastrophe was precipitated by rivalries between Russia and the Central Powers in the Balkans. As Russia now has no desire for Constantinople, her interest in controlling the Balkans has vanished, and the greatest obstacle which stood in the way of a peace between Russia and Germany has been removed. The delay in the delivery of the Peace speech of the German Chancellor is generally supposed to have been due to the hope that he would be able to announce the conclusion of an agreement with Russia. Fortunately, the enemy failed to induce the Russians to formally back out of the struggle, and Bethmann-Hollweg contented himself with most cordially holding out an olive branch to our Eastern Ally. A cynic would joy in the present situation. We are fighting to destroy military autocracies, to democratise the people of Europe, to help them shake off their despots and rule themselves, and the very first fruit of our efforts deals us a staggering blow. The autocratic Tsar, at any rate, stood by his Allies; his freed people are apparently going to desert them. Whilst we cannot but rejoice that the downtrodden moujik has come into his own, the change from a government by a responsible monarch to that of an irresponsible mob is likely to be a disaster for us.

THE LAST OF A GERMAN AEROPLANE ON THE RUSSIAN FRONT.

Scenes like this are not occurring now in the east, but must frequently have been witnessed before the Russians ceased active operations in the field. It shows a German aeroplane shot down by Russian gunners. The bodies of the two German aviators lie under the torn piece of fabric on the right of the photograph.

No Help from Russia This Year.

There are plenty of people still trying to convince us that, ere long, the Russian army will be battering its way into Germany, that soon a democratic people will throw themselves whole-heartedly into the struggle again. What is the object of this fooling? Has there ever been an instance in history of a gigantic army, utterly demoralised, recovering its morale? Dare we assume that supplies, short before, are not still shorter since industry was disorganised, and railroads were blocked? Let us be under no fond and comfortable delusions. We cannot possibly look to Russia for any help in the field this year. The best we can hope for, at the moment, is that there being no one in the country with sufficient authority to negotiate with Germany, or to guarantee the keeping of a peace once made, a state of war will continue, so that the Central Powers cannot secure any of the grain stored in Muscovite granaries. Do not let us expect the obviously impossible. Hope for the best, of course, but do not stick our heads, ostrich-like, in the sands of make-believe. If Russia were to make peace, as well as cease active hostilities, our starvation blockade would be raised. What would it profit us to blockade the front door when the back door was wide open? Prince Lvoff remains Prime Minister, and he is a strong man, a man with great influence throughout the country. So long as he stays at the head of affairs the worst cannot happen. Unfortunately, it is inevitable that the time must come when he and his new Socialist colleagues fall out. Then would come the final test. If he wins out, Germany will not get Russian wheat. If he follows Miliukoff and Gutchkoff, then the Socialist programme will be put through.

Raising the British Blockade.

Meanwhile we may be quite certain that Germany is offering all sorts of concessions. She would make great sacrifices if thereby

she could win not merely a truce, but a peace with Russia. The extremists are evidently prepared to grant autonomy to the various races which have hitherto bowed under the yoke of the Tsar. Germany wants an independent Poland, and desires the Baltic provinces to be formed into a separate State. The Russians now also desire these things, but whilst the Germans propose to secure the adhesion of these new States to their Empire by setting Teutonic monarchs on their thrones, the Russians demand republics. In view of the tremendous advantage to Germany peace with Russia would bring, it is certainly probable that the republican idea would be heartily endorsed by the Kaiser and his advisers. Turkey has already offered free passage through the Dardanelles, has even agreed to discuss the future of Armenia with the Muscovites. The new Russia has no aspirations in Persia, might even hand over Bessarabia to Roumania, would not oppose complete Home Rule for Finland. It has been pointed out that, even if peace were concluded, the traffic arrangements of Russia are in such a hopeless tangle that it would be months before any notable quantities of grain could reach Germany. That is probably true, but there can be no doubt at all that there are ample supplies in Germany to-day, if the Government would give them all out regardless of the future. If it were certain that, some months hence, Russian food would pour into the Central Empires, there would be at once ample supplies available in Germany and Austria. Our blockade would be nullified the moment a definite arrangement were come to between Germany and Russia, even though no wheat crossed the frontier for another six months or more. All we can do at present is to pin our faith on Prince Lvoff.

The U.S. Loan to Russia.

Many people have read into the American action of lending Russia £20,000,000, a declaration of faith on the part of the Washington Government in that country, an assurance that the Americans, at any rate, consider that there is little prospect of the Russians making a separate peace. It is hardly necessary to tell my readers that the granting of this loan means nothing of the sort. In fact, it might just as easily be taken to indicate the very opposite. The position is perfectly simple. The Russians have purchased huge supplies of ammunition, of guns and of war material generally in the United States and also in Japan. But Russia herself has no money wherewith to pay for these purchases. Even if she had it would be exceedingly unwise for her to attempt to settle these accounts with money raised within the country, for the rouble stands at a terrible discount in Allied and neutral lands. In our February 2nd number I gave particulars about an American loan to Russia which showed a staggering profit to the lenders, if the rouble rehabilitated itself during the next few years—it worked out in fact at about 60 per cent. That particular loan was given to facilitate the carrying out of work by American contractors in Russia. This present one is obviously given, not to the Russians at all, but to the American munition makers, who have supplied the Muscovite Government with war material. Not a cent of the 100,000,000 dollar loan will leave the United States. What must have happened is clear enough. Some time ago American manufacturers refused to accept orders from Russia for war supplies unless such orders were countersigned by Great Britain. They did not feel secure—that is, with the guarantee of the Russian Government alone. Russia has evidently not been able to meet the bills. American manufacturers naturally demand payment—they would have to close down if their accounts are not settled—and they look to England for the money. The United States Government then stepped in to relieve the British Government, and paid these Americans out of the Treasury at Washington, charging the amount up against Russia. It is quite possible that the liability of the British Government remains, though the loan was nominally made to Russia, not to England. The Japanese Government paid the manufacturers of Nippon in the same way for supplying war material to Russia. The Tsar's Government could not meet the bills, the Mikado's diligent subjects had to be paid, or shut up their factories result, Japan lends Russia millions, the whole of which remains in Japan. It is highly probable, indeed, that these unpaid manufacturers took stock in this loan as part payment of their accounts, for as the Japanese Government was behind the transaction, the script would be negotiable. To assume that this last loan of America means anything more than a desire to save certain American manufacturers from disaster is absurd. The integrity or solvency of Russia does not enter into the matter at all.

Separate Peace with Turkey?

The somewhat cryptic utterance of Mr. Bonar Law the other day has been taken to mean that there was good hope of a separate peace being made with Turkey. The exact words he used were:

> It is a natural view to take that our enemies are all bad, and that a separate peace is unthinkable, but that depends upon circumstances. The Germans are apparently striving continually to detach some of our Allies. I would suggest that no blow would be so fatal to Germany as the detachment of one of her allies.

It is customary to regard Turkey as in a chronic state of *extremis*, but actually the former "sick man" is at the moment healthier than he has ever been. Nowhere is he seriously threatened. He is driving the Russians back in Armenia, he has stopped our advance into Judea, our gallant army at Bagdad can work him no further harm owing to the loss of Russian support. At the moment he has probably more than a million men under arms, and not a quarter of these are needed to carry on operations in Macedonia, Judea and Mesopotamia. It is, indeed, probable that his dreams of Persian conquest are again captivating him! The uncomfortable facts being as set forth, is it reasonable to suppose that the recovered sick man would agree to a peace which we have constantly asserted must have his carving up between us as a fundamental basis? If we make peace with Turkey now it would have to be on very different terms to those we have all along maintained were essential. The Sultan would never agree to a peace which would give France a protectorate over Syria and give Britain Palestine, which would hand over Mesopotamia to India, and for ever banish the Persian dream. Peace now with the Padeshah would leave his country completely under his control, would mean the abandonment to his tender mercies of the subject races of Armenia and Syria, would leave him still in Europe, out of which we have sworn to kick him.

Leave Austria Intact to Secure Peace.

Nor is there much prospect of making a separate peace with Bulgaria, unless Germany were a consenting party. Bulgaria, remember, is at war with us, not because Britain and Germany are fighting for supremacy, but because Serbia is allied to us. It was to seize territory which the Serbs had despoiled them of, after the second Balkan war, that the Bulgars allied themselves with what seemed to them the most powerful side. We are pledged to restore Serbia, a pledge which makes agreement with Bulgaria—a triumphant Bulgaria at present—impossible. So far as Austria is concerned, the retirement of Russia from active participation in the struggle removes any cause for fear Vienna might have had. Only to get supplies would Austria make a separate peace, and if we made peace with her to-morrow we could send no supplies, for we have none! All we could do would be to ask Russia to send them—and it is from that source, it would seem, that Austria expects to get food anyway. It would be difficult for us to induce Italy to forgo the things she went to war to get. We have this week been told what the Italian demands are. They have been modified apparently to meet the ideas expressed in President Wilson's speeches, but they still include Trieste and the eastern litoral of the Adriatic, as well as all the islands of the inland sea. Austria must have an outlet to the oceans of the world, and has before now refused to switch on to Hungarian Fiume, which place would be completely dominated by the Italians from the islands they now demand. Then, too, we are committed to hand over large slices of Hungary to Roumania and Servia, to give Bosnia and Herzegovina to King Peter, and to liberate the Czechs. We would have to abandon these desires and promises if we desire peace with Austria. At the same time it may be that it would be well worth our while to make peace with Turkey, Bulgaria or Austria, giving up all idea of participation or liberation of subject races, for thereby we would be able to defeat Germany. Realising this, we can better understand what great concessions the Kaiser would be prepared to make Russia if thereby he might win a separate peace with her.

The Allies' War Aims.

As was inevitable, the aims of Great Britain in this war have slowly but steadily developed, and her present objects differ considerably from those for which she plunged into the struggle. When, to maintain the rights of Belgium, which we had guaranteed, we declared war on Germany, our leaders announced that we wanted no territory, desired no indemnity, were fighting merely to uphold the sacredness of treaties and to prevent Prussian militarism from crushing small nations. As the terrific conflict developed, it was but natural that our demands should increase. When Tur-

key joined the Central Powers we hailed this as a chance to sweep away for ever the Ottoman Empire, which had for too long flaunted the decencies of civilisation and, counting on the jealousies of the Great Powers, had gone on its evil, massacring way unchecked and unpunished. Our statesmen immediately offered Constantinople to Russia, promised Greece long-coveted territory in Asia Minor, annexed Cyprus, and denounced the nominal Turkish suzerainty over Egypt. France, which had long interested herself in the development of Syria, was assured a protectorate over that land, and we ourselves set to work to wrest Mesopotamia and Bagdad from the Turk. Russia was promised Armenia, and the opportunity for a further partition of Persia was not neglected. Meantime, the South Africans had begun an expedition against German South-West Africa, the Australians had possessed themselves of German New Guinea, the New Zealanders were firmly established at Samoa, and the Japanese and British between them had snapped up every German Island in the Pacific. Kiau Chau surrendered to the Japanese, and, ere long, the last enemy possession oversea fell to the victorious Afrikanders. When the first peace suggestions were made Lloyd George declared that Great Britain would agree to no peace which did not secure—(1) *Complete Restitution*, (2) *Full Reparation*, (3) *Effectual Guarantees*. These somewhat nebulous phrases were later translated to mean the restoration of Belgium, Serbia and Montenegro, the evacuation of the invaded parts of France, Russia and Roumania, the restitution of provincial territories, formerly torn from Allied countries, the liberation of the Italians, Slavs, Roumanians, Czechs and Slovaks from foreign domination, the freeing of the peoples lying beneath the murderous tyranny of the Turks, and the final expulsion of the Ottoman Empire from Europe, the reorganisation of Europe to allow the free economic development of all peoples, and arrangements to guarantee land and sea frontiers against unjust attacks.

THE SNOW IS MELTING IN THE TRENTINO, BUT THIS IS WHAT THE ITALIANS HAVE HAD TO CONTEND WITH ALL THE WINTER.

The photograph shows the village of Rocca Pietore.

No War Indemnity.

These peace conditions committed the Allies definitely to the cutting up of Turkey and the disruption and division of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The most notable omissions in these terms were the German colonies and Poland. The latter problem was, however, regarded as a purely Russian affair, and the failure to mention that we intended to keep the German colonies was remedied by Mr. Walter Long, who, soon after, declared that we could never give them up. M. Trepoff announced to the Duma that Russia had been definitely promised Constantinople, and it was understood of course that the provincial territories torn from Allied countries referred to Alsace-Lorraine, and, conceivably, the Trentino. A further stage in the matter was reached when, in reply to a speech by Philip Snowden, the stalwart peace advocate, Lord Robert Cecil announced that we could only accept a peace justifying the sacrifices which had been made. We had entered the war, he said, without schemes of Imperialistic conquest or aggrandisement. This was equally true now. He went on to explain that we still adhered to the principle of "no annexation," justifying the taking of the German colonies, the proposed division of Turkey, and the cutting up of Austria on the ground that German, Turkish and Austrian rule had been terrible, and that the people of these territories would immensely benefit by the transference from enemy to British, French, Italian, Serbian or Russian suzerainty. Whilst admitting that it is quite possible that the natives of the German African colonies might prefer Boer rule to German, that the South Sea Islanders may rejoice to have the Mikado their king instead of the Kaiser, that the Armenians would prefer Russian to Turkish rule, that a majority of Transylvanians long to be under the Roumanian flag, and that those who dwell in the land of the twin rivers would infinitely rather pay taxes to British than to Turkish officials, we are yet obliged to acknowledge that we have travelled a great way since the head of the British Government asserted, "We do not covet any people's territory; we have no desire to impose our rule upon alien populations. The British Empire is enough for us." We should, however, be grateful to Mr. Snowden for getting so definite a statement from the Government on the important question of our war aims. Apparently we do not propose to demand a great war indemnity, as has been suggested in many quarters. We will, however, insist upon the indemnification and reparation of Belgium and Serbia, and upon reparation for our merchantmen sunk in the enemy submarine blockade. Beyond these things, at present, we do not apparently intend to go.

America to the Rescue—in 1918.

In our last issue I referred to the great influence President Wilson would have in Allied councils. The withdrawal of Russia from active participation makes the Allies still more dependent on the United States, for they have to look to her to make good the defection of the men of Muscovy. If we cannot rely upon Russian soldiers to crush Germany, we must look to America to help us win final victory. As it is obviously impossible to get four or five million soldiers from the United States for a year or more, clearly we will have to wait until 1919 before we can hope for final and decisive military triumph over the Central Empires. During the first two years of the struggle the Allies in the west took the part of anvil for the Russian hammer. At the very moment when, after tremendous exertions, a mighty offensive army had been created by Great Britain and the Western Allies, began themselves to swing the hammer, their blows were not answered by Russian strokes in the east. Our great and mighty blows strike home, but, alas! there is now no anvil on which to crush our foes. If Germany is able to concentrate all her forces in the west, the possibility of our breaking her line is remote, but, fortunately, the chance of the enemy smashing their way through is equally distant. I think, then, that though there may be some swaying to and fro in France and Flanders, the deadlock there will continue until once more Allied armies greatly outnumber those of the enemy—and that state of affairs cannot exist until American troops arrive in force. But, as we know from our own experience, it takes a long time to create an army, millions strong, out of nothing. True, with the advantage of our example before them, America should make a considerably quicker job of it than did England, but it is clear that, whilst some American troops might reach France this year, a great army cannot possibly cross the Atlantic for another twelve or eighteen months. Meantime the mere knowledge that a vast number of men are being trained in the United States cannot but serve to hearten the Allies, and induce Germany to endeavour to end the war this year.

A " Marking-Time " Speech.

This she may try to do in two ways. She may hurl all her forces against the Allies in the west with the object of crushing them before American help can be given, or she may put forward peace proposals which it will be possible for the Allies to accept—urged thereto by President Wilson. I still hold that when Germany does again send out peace feelers, the Allies, despite their refusal to consider anything coming from the Central Powers, will be constrained to take note of them because the head of the great American people, without whose help we cannot now hope for final victory, will insist upon it. It is a great disappointment that the German Chancellor did not definitely state what the enemy peace terms were, but it is not remarkable that he refrained from announcing them, for it is obvious that the whole situation of the Central Powers would be changed if a separate peace were concluded with Russia. With a powerful Russian army battering against their lines, the Germans would hardly make the same proposals as they must now be contemplating, should serious effort by Russia altogether cease. The Chancellor, like Lord Robert Cecil, refused to endorse the Russian formula, "peace without annexation," and adopted the attitude —one which must peculiarly appeal to the Central peoples—that as the Allies were determined to crush Germany and economically exterminate her, it was hopeless to try and induce them to accept a peace which would involve abandonment of this determination, and said:

> Shall I simply grant them licence to continue the war indefinitely without any risk of losses to themselves? Shall I tell them that whatever happens we, in all circumstances, will renounce our war gains, whilst they who are making an attempt to end our existence are free to try conclusions without risk? Shall I compromise the Empire by endorsing in every respect a one-sided programme which relinquishes the successes for which our sons and brethren have paid with blood?

We somehow do not realise that the German people have taken all our talk about going on until we have crushed them, about our intention of shutting them out permanently from the world's markets, about cutting up Turkey and dividing Austria as meaning that we propose to wipe them, as a first-class power, off the face of Europe, and that they are absolutely convinced that this is the object for which we are fighting. If we grasped that fact we would place less reliance on the reports of dissension in Germany, have less hope that internal revolution might so weaken enemy armies as to make our triumphant march to Berlin possible. Undoubtedly Bethmann-Hollweg's speech was a very clever one, which played with great skill on the fears and hates of the people, and did not forget to hold out a most cordial hand to Russia. But apart from this, it is chiefly remarkable for the evidence it gives that the German Government is obviously marking time until some definite result is arrived at in the negotiations with Russia. On the result of those depends Germany's future, and the Chancellor is fully aware of that.

American Warships in Allied Waters.

The Americans, like the Germans, have constantly harped on the freedom of the seas ever since the war began, and it is not without significance that the Admiral in command of their Atlantic Fleet, in reply to Sir David Beatty's congratulatory message, again referred to it. Admiral Beatty welcomed the arrival of American torpedo boats in British waters, rejoicing that " the United States fleet now shares in the task of preserving the liberties of the world and maintaining chivalry at sea." To which Admiral Mayo: "The United States' Atlantic Fleet welcomes the opportunity to cooperate with the British Fleet for the freedom of the seas." Already American torpedo boats are engaged in convoying ships across the Atlantic, and it is said that larger warships are on their way over. This is the first military assistance that America has given the Allies, and, in criticising the delay in producing soldiers, which will inevitably occur, we ought to bear in mind that it has always been understood, has, indeed, been again and again publicly stated, that men came last in the list of things for which the Allies looked to the United States for help. The order was money, ships, munitions, men. Owing to the Russian crisis, and the tremendous and unrealised drain on France, men have now shifted from last to first place, but all America's arrangements, all her plans, have been directed to supply the needs of the Allies in the original order. The improvisation of an army, and a gigantic army at that, obviously found the Americans unprepared. Nor is that to be wondered at.

Train American Armies in U.S.

The scheme of Marshal Joffre, which has been strongly endorsed by General Pétain —that men should at once be sent across the

Atlantic and should be trained in France—has not, after all, met with approval in Washington. If the United States is expected to shoulder the burden of the war on land, as well as undertake to supply the Allies with food and money and guns, then the army she sends is going to be an American army entirely; it is not to consist of scattered French-trained units. This attitude is entirely understandable, but it is perfectly obvious that the Joffre plan would far more speedily swell the combined forces opposed to Germany in the west than the plan which apparently will be adopted of training soldiers in the United States and sending them over as a fully equipped army. In France there are any number of highly competent instructors who have been trained in the hard school of actual warfare, whereas in the United States there can be very few men able to train soldiers as they must nowadays be trained. Anyhow, owing to Russia's defection, the Allies are obliged to look to America for help in the field, and cannot well question her methods of giving this, but, as already mentioned, military assistance from the United States cannot be looked for until the middle or end of next year.

Our Offensive in the West.

The great event in the west has been the capture of Bullecourt, a hamlet situated on the direct road from Bapaume to Douai, seven miles from the former and fourteen from the latter. It is reported to be on the famous Hindenburg line, but it is certainly doubtful whether it is really part of the German main defences. The Australians greatly distinguished themselves here, and although the hamlet itself was taken by British troops, it could not have been won had the Australians not thrust a wedge into the German front to the south of the place, and grimly hung on to this exposed salient, repelling at least a dozen furious enemy attacks. Their position would have become quite untenable had the British not stormed the village, but the two operations, the driving of the wedge and the taking of the hamlet, were made possible the one by the other. The papers have given us columns concerning the Bullecourt fighting, and much information about the operations to the north, at Roeux and Gavrelle, so much in fact that we have inevitably assumed that great progress is being made in pushing back the enemy. Actually, though, our advance during the last month has been very slight. Our object, however, is not only to force back the foe, but to kill German soldiers, and thus hasten the time when lack of man power compels withdrawal to the Rhine. If we may believe the cables, we have slaughtered tens of thousands of enemies, but, unfortunately, their places have been taken by men from the Russian front. Though our successes between Arras and Cambrai have been gratifying, Lens has not yet fallen, and St. Quentin is still held by the enemy. I have already dealt with the significance of the St. Quentin offensive as a measure of the time it takes to prepare an assault on new ground selected by the enemy for us. There has been no mention in the cables of a drive from Armentières or from Ypres, so that a direct assault on Lille is evidently not contemplated yet.

Superiority in the Air.

Reports concerning the magnificent work of our big guns continue to come through, and we have evidently established a valuable superiority there. In the air, too, we are said to be supreme, but it is evidently at heavy cost. The German claims concerning our aerial losses are of course dismissed as fantastic, but we only need to take out the particulars given in Sir Douglas Haig's official communiqués to find out that for every four German planes destroyed, three of ours are lost. Although these reports give the daily results they do not appear each day, consequently they cannot give the exact totals, but the proportion of enemy losses to ours would probably remain the same. According to the British Commander-in-Chief, from March 1st to May 15th we brought down 164 enemy planes, and during the same period 124 of ours went up and never came back again. We must not forget, though, that the aerial fighting takes place almost always over enemy territory, and our men are exposed to anti-aircraft guns as well as to aerial attack.

Changes in French Command.

On another page will be found a short sketch of General Neville, who, when that section of STEAD'S went to press, was still commander-in-chief of the French armies. He has relinquished his command to General Pétain, who has also risen from comparative obscurity since the war began. Pétain it was who stopped the German thrust at Verdun, and rumour has it that the Briand Government offered him the supreme command when Marshal Joffre retired from active service. He refused, like General Castlenau, on the ground, so it is

said, that the proposed control by the War Council over the Commander-in-Chief was an impossible condition. General Neville, who succeeded Pétain at Verdun, however, accepted the position, and has apparently done excellent work during the last few months. In fact, the papers have been full of praise concerning his system of attack on enemy trenches and strongholds. He has now been relegated to the command of an army group, and General Pétain has assumed the chief command. He has, as his chief-of-staff, General Foch, with whose magnificent work in the field we are all familiar. This re-shuffle suggests either that things have not been going so well in the field as we have been led to believe, or that the obstacle which before prevented Pétain accepting the position of Commander-in-Chief has been removed. Perhaps the civil control was proved unsatisfactory, gave bad results in the field, and when the War Council gave up this control it deemed it advisable to give up the General who had carried on under it as well. Be that as it may, any changes in high command make a bad impression on the people, and, even though the present re-shuffle may have put the better man in control, it leaves an uneasy feeling that something somewhere may have gone awry.

With the Melting of the Snow.

The melting of the snow on the slopes of the Julian Alps has been immediately followed by a great Italian drive against the Austrian lines north of the Carso. Notable successes are claimed, but it is regrettable that the wild winter prevented Count Cadorna from launching his offensive until the quiescence on the Russian front enabled the enemy to send masses of troops and thousands of guns to assist in the defence. Hitherto the Austrians have held off the Italians by means of cunningly devised defences. Utilising the natural obstacles of the ground to the full, they have managed, with far inferior forces, to keep our Allies at bay. On one occasion only is it probable that the Austrian forces were anything like equal to those of King Victor. That was when, the pressure on Gorz becoming too great, the enemy launched their great drive from the Trentino. But we now know that this drive was carried out with barely enough men to win initial success; there were never enough to seriously threaten the Italian armies. Even this offensive had to be suddenly cut short when Brusiloff hurled his forces against the Austro-Germans in Galicia and Volhynia. It achieved its object, for the moment, but soon after the Italians were knocking irresistibly at Gorz, and the Austrians abandoned the place, having apparently no reserves left to throw into it. From that important gateway to Trieste the enemy retreated on to the Carso plateau. The following Italians forced them back slowly, until Trieste itself was within range of Cadorna's guns. Then the Austrians rooted in their trenches and the drive ended.

The Italian Offensive.

All through the unusually long winter there has been quiet on all Italian fronts, but the enforced truce has been broken at last. The scene of our Allies' attack is north not south of Gorz. That means that there is to be no direct drive at Trieste. Instead, the Italians are storming up into the hills east of Plava, a place some ten miles north of Gorz. As strong attacks were directed against the enemy along a forty mile front north of Plava, it would seem that the Italian plan is to drive up the Idria valley with the object of outflanking the enemy positions, which have proved invulnerable to frontal attack on the Carso plateau. Thus far success has crowned Count Cadorna's efforts, but there is ominous mention in the cables of heavy Austrian reinforcements arriving from the Russian front. Already, then, Russian inaction is spelling Italian danger. It may, alas! even convert danger into defeat. Reports from Rome assure us that the Italian armies are prepared for every possibility, and are confident of victory. All the same, we know what happened in the Trentino last year, when, with one hand tied by Russia, the Austrians yet forced the troops of King Victor almost down on to the Venetian plain, and, before that offensive began we were assured that the Italian defences were impregnable!

Will Last Year's Drive be Repeated?

The winter has been one of the hardest ever experienced in Europe, but, by now, roads and passes must be free of snow. If the Austrians have the intention of striking at Italy they must, as I have often pointed out before, concentrate in the Trentino, for from that down-stretching wedge they can deliver a paralysing blow, providing they can hammer through the first series of Italian defences. On looking back to the previous offensive, which pushed our Allies to the

edge of the plateau overlooking the historic Quadrilateral, it is interesting, perhaps significant, to find that it was launched in full force just exactly a year ago, although some local successes had been won by the enemy early in May, 1916. By June 3 the onrush had been halted. Austrians troops were being hurried to Galicia, and, a few weeks later, the Italians had won back all, and more, than all they had lost. If the Italians continue to progress on the Isonzo front we may surely look for an enemy eruption from the Trentino, and, as for the first time the Austrians will have more soldiers available than the Italians can put in the field, and as we may be certain that the German General Staff will be in charge, the outlook for our gallant Ally, instead of being splendidly hopeful, as we anticipated might be the case when, last year, we looked forward to the spring offensive, is obviously fraught with danger. Russia, and Russia only, can help Cadorna. But, alas! there appears to be little chance of a Russian offensive now.

In Asia-Minor.

The situation in Armenia is confused, but Petrograd admits retirement here and there. Evidently our Allies are still at Van, for fighting is reported south of that place. It would seem, judging by the villages where fighting has been occurring, that the Turks are pushing forward from Sivas, Kharput and Diarbekr, not from Mosul. That is to say, that the army operating against the Russians has been sent from Constantinople is not the same which opposed the advance of General Maude. This is somewhat significant, because it suggests the arrival of strong bodies of fresh troops upon the scene. The evident withdrawal of the Russian from Bitlis, Mush, and the neighbourhood of Erzingan, shows that the pressure now being exerted is considerable, and indicates that the Anglo-British army coming up from Bagdad will get no help from the Russians in Armenia, and little from the small Muscovite army which has advanced through Persia. Fortunately, these Russian armies being more or less isolated, and on their own, are less likely to be influenced by the forces which have brought about a cessation of hostilities in Galicia, Roumania and Little Russia. Nothing further has been done at Gaza, where it would seem the Turks are now in force. The bombardment of Beyrout by a French warship has not been followed by any attempt at landing in Syria. For the time being, at any rate, we evidently intend to make no further attempt to invade Judea. Our clearing of the Sinai peninsula has made the Suez Canal perfectly secure.

Soon £8,000,000 a Day.

Last February Mr. Bonar Law announced that the daily expenditure of Great Britain on the war had reached the stupendous total of £7,260,000, although a few months earlier the estimate for the year ending in March, 1917, placed it at only £5,500,000. The daily drain had, that is to say, increased by £1.760.000, In commenting on this huge rise in our April 14th number, I suggested that it would not be at all surprising if the total expenditure for this year, did not reach £3,000,000,000. That gigantic figure bids fair to be attained, for already Mr. Bonar Law has had to announce that the daily expenditure has increased by £200,000 since February, and is now £7,450,000. The £8,000,000 mark must soon be reached unless the United States relieves Britain of the burden her Allies and Dominions throw upon her. Already the exchequer in London must be nearly empty, for the huge £1,000,000,000 Victory loan is being paid in by instalments, and, of the money already received, no less than £550,000,000 has been used to meet Treasury Bills which have fallen due since the loan was closed. To meet current expenses, then, the Home Government will again have to resort to the issue of Treasury Bills, using the balance of the loan—£450,000,000—to meet those falling due during the next few months. It would seem certain, then, that in four or five months' time at latest there will have to be another gigantic loan floated. We are having proofs on every hand of the truth of the law which has been given the name of that sound old financier, Sir Thomas Gresham. The worst form of currency, he said, in 1558, drives all other forms of currency out of circulation. We go on using the printing press, and money, apparently, is plentiful. But unaccountably the prices of necessaries—indeed, of all things—go up. It is not really so much that the value of commodies has increased, as that the value of money has decreased. It is inevitable in war time, when such unheard of sums are required, that nations must finance themselves by recourse to the printing press, but they cannot stop the operation of certain fundamental laws, and no amount of legislation can upset the conclusions arrived at by Gresham.

IRELAND AND HOME RULE.

The counties which would vote for exclusion from Home Rule, if the proposed Referendum followed on the lines of the last election, are shown in black. The voting in Armagh would be close. It might be carried for Home Rule, it might not. These four counties have an area of 3478 square miles, a population of 1,020,955. The remaining Ulster counties have an area of 5091 square miles, a population of 561,871. The whole of Ireland has an area of 32,551 square miles, a population of 4,381,951. There are 3,242,670 Roman Catholics, 576,611 Episcopalians, 440,525 Presbyterians, 62,382 Methodists, and 68,000 professing other creeds or no religion. In Ulster itself there are 690,000 Roman Catholics, 367,000 Episcopalians, and 320,000 Presbyterians. At present Ireland is represented in the Imperial Parliament by 84 Home Rulers and 19 Unionists, Ulster sending 17 Home Rulers and 16 Unionists.

YET ANOTHER ATTEMPT TO SETTLE THE IRISH QUESTION.

Urged on by the sorry condition of Ireland, by the representations of Dominion statesmen, and by the direct request of President Wilson, the British Government is making another effort to settle the question of Home Rule. Full details of the scheme evolved are not yet available, will not be until after STEAD'S goes to press, but the general outline was given by Mr. Bonar Law in the House of Commons two days ago. His statement was based on a letter addressed by the Prime Minister to Mr. Redmond. Therein Mr. Lloyd George set forth the Cabinet proposals. He wrote:

The Government is prepared to introduce a bill granting Home Rule to Ireland, and excluding the six Protestant counties of Ulster, such exclusion to be the subject of reconsideration by Parliament at the end of five years, unless the arrangement be terminated in the meantime by the proposed Council of Ireland. The bill proposes that the latter council shall consist of all the members returned to Westminster from the excluded area, and a delegation, equal in numbers, from the Irish Parliament.

It is evident from this declaration that a great deal depends upon the suggested Council. It is to consist of all the members of Parliament sent to Westminster from the excluded area, and of an equal number of members of the Irish Parliament. It is empowered—(1) To pass by private bill legislation affecting any part of Ireland; (2) To recommend the Crown to extend to the excluded area any Act of the Irish Parliament; (3) To agree to the inclusion of the whole of Ireland under the Home Rule Act, subject to the assent of the majority of the voters in the excluded areas; (4) To make recommendations upon Irish questions, including the amendment of the Home Rule Act. A bare majority in the Council, though, does not suffice; there must be a majority in both sections—the men from Ulster and the men from the rest of Ireland.

Why this provision is made is obvious directly we examine the figures, for the Council would be composed as follows:—From the excluded counties would come 26 members—16 Unionists, 8 Nationalists and 2 Liberals. From the Irish Parliament would come 26 Nationalists. Thus in the Council there would be 16 Unionists and 34 Home Rulers. On a straight vote those opposed to Home Rule would be in a minority of more than two to one. Mr. Lloyd George refers to the "six Protestant counties of Ulster," although as a matter of cold fact, there are in reality only four counties in that Province in which there dwell a majority of Protestants. To get the six he evidently includes Tyrone and Fermanagh. On that assumption we may set out the following interesting particulars of the counties which are to be excluded:—

County.	Represented in Parliament by Liberal.	Nationalist.	Unionist.	Percentage of Roman Catholics.
Antrim	—	—	4	20
Armagh	—	2	2	45
Derry	—	—	2	43
Down	—	1	3	31
Fermanagh	—	1	1	55
Tyrone	1	2	1	55

In addition, three towns in these counties send Members to Westminster. Belfast sends four—three Unionists and 1 Nationalist—no other than Mr. Devlin, the *bête noire* of the anti-Home Rulers! Newry sends 1 Nationalist and Londonderry 1 Liberal. In April, 1914, I published a very comprehensive article dealing with Home Rule. Therein I set forth the provisions of the Act, and endeavoured to show how it would work out in practice, and also gave the main objections raised by the Ultersmen. On that occasion I printed a map of Ireland which I reproduce herewith. It was proposed at that time that Ulster counties should have the right of voting themselves out of the arrangement if they wished, and the accompanying map shows, in black, those counties which, if the referendum went on the lines of the previous election, would have so withdrawn themselves. Armagh is dotted, as there the voting would be close. There are strong majorities in favour of Home Rule, though, in all the other Ulster counties, and it is certain that the Nationalists will resent the exclusion of Tyrone and Fermanagh. The only argument likely to weight with them is that, by agreeing to such exclusion, they obtain four more members in the suggested Council than would otherwise be the case.

It is interesting to recall the various attempts that have been made to settle the Irish question during the last few years.

1886.—First Home Rule Bill introduced by Mr. Gladstone in April.
Bill defeated by 30 votes in June. Mr. Gladstone appealed to country.
1890.—Irish Party split over Mr. Parnell.
1891.—Death of Mr. Parnell. Mr. John Redmond succeeds.
1892.—Home Rule majority at general election.
1893.—Mr. Gladstone introduces second Home Rule Bill.
Lords reject the measure and the Bill is dropped.
1894.—Mr. Gladstone retires.
1895.—General election. Liberals defeated.
1900.—Irish Party reunited under Mr. Redmond.
1901.—Lord Rosebery and leading Liberals abandon Home Rule.
1906.—General election. Home Rule not an issue. Great Liberal majority.
1910.—General Election. Issue Home Rule and veto of the House of Lords. Liberal victory.
Parliament Act introduced.
King Edward dies.
Second general election. Liberal victory.
1911.—Parliament Act passed and approved by the Lords under threat.
1912.—Mr. Asquith reintroduces Home Rule Bill.
Ulster Covenant formed.
1913.—Sir Edward Carson's motion for exclusion of Ulster rejected by large majority in Commons.
Bill passed by majority of 367 to 251.
Lords reject Bill.
Sir Edward Carson declared that Ulster would resist by force.
Bill again passed in Commons by large majority.
Ulster Volunteers formed.
Lords again reject Bill.
Sir Edward Carson announces the establishment of a Provisional Government Committee. Training camps in connection with the Ulster Volunteers are formed.
1914.—Bill introduced a third time in the Commons
Mr. Asquith offered to exclude, for a period of six years, those counties of Ulster which, by referendum, so decided.
Grave crisis amongst troops in Ireland. Colonel Seely (Minister of War), Sir John French (Inspector-General) and Sir J. S. Ewart (Quartermaster-General) all resign.
Home Rule Bill passed second reading by majority of 356 to 278.
Amending Bill introduced providing for the exclusion of Ulster counties. Home Rule Bill passed by Commons, Amending Bill introduced in Lords.
The King summoned a conference of leaders at Buckingham Palace. This sat for four days, but failed to arrive at any agreement.
Nationalist Volunteers fired on in Dublin by the soldiers.
Amending Bill withdrawn.
War declared against Germany.
Bill suspending Home Rule Bill passed.
Home Rule Bill receives the Royal assent.
By mutual consent the matter is dropped for the time being.
1916.—The Sinn Fein rebellion. Martial law proclaimed.
Recruiting practically ceases.
Mr. Lloyd George entrusted with task of settling the Irish difficulty; finds it impossible.
Negotiations between leaders fail.
Irish Party goes into definite opposition to Lloyd George's Government.
1917.—President Wilson suggests advisability of giving Ireland Home Rule.
Scheme devised by Mr. Lloyd George without consulting the Irish Party.
If this fails convention of Irishmen of all parties suggested.

The Suspensory Act of 1914 reads as follows:—

Notwithstanding anything in the Government of Ireland Act 1914 (Home Rule), no steps whatever shall be taken to put that Act into operation until the expiration of twelve months from the date of the passing of that Act, or, if, at the expiration of those twelve months the present war has not ended, until such later date (not being later than the end of the present war) as may be fixed by His Majesty by Order in Council; and the provisions of that Act shall have effect accordingly.

It remains to be seen whether the present effort is doomed like its predecessors to failure. The scheme having been evolved without the knowledge of the Irish Home Rulers, and with the assistance of the Ulstermen, is hardly likely to commend itself to the Nationalists, who are certain to strongly object to the "clean cut" of six Ulster counties, without the wishes of these counties being first ascertained. If the Ulstermen are so confident that the six counties strongly object to being included in an autonimous Ireland, it is difficult to understand what objection they can have to submitting the question to a referendum of the people dwelling in them. Ere these lines appear the attitude of the Nationalists and the Ulstermen will have been announced, and we should know whether success is to crown the Prime Minister's latest attempt, or whether yet another failure must be added to that growing scrap heap of discarded schemes of settlement.

THE REPATRIATION OF OUR SOLDIERS.

Everyone agrees that one of the most urgent matters which requires the careful consideration, not only of the Government, but also of those desirous to see that the heroic men who have risked their lives for the Empire are properly cared for on their return, is the repatriation of the soldiers. Various schemes have been proposed, but thus far nothing very practical has been evolved. For one thing, we should be grateful—the Government has definitely realised that it is responsible for these men and has altogether abandoned the idea of voluntary contributions to finance it. This is a matter which is everybody's concern, and it is only right that the burden of it should be as evenly distributed as possible on the shoulders of everyone throughout the land.

This acceptation of responsibility means that there will be plenty of money forthcoming, raised either by taxation or by loan. It is highly necessary, however, that the fact that any amount of cash is available should not breed a crop of wild cat and impracticable schemes. The Federal Government has given a lead in the matter, but, after all, its main concern is the financing of any scheme which may be adopted by the States, because the settlement of soldiers on the land, or their methodical absorption into existing industries is a matter of State, not Federal, concern, and it is to the States we must look for the origination and carrying out of repatriation schemes.

The Ministers of Lands in the various States have met together, and have evolved a scheme for placing soldiers on the land, which will be embodied in similar bills to be introduced shortly in the various State Legislatures. Meantime the different States have assisted the settlement of individual soldiers on the land. In Victoria, for instance, 150 applications for land have been granted. It is perfectly obvious, however, that, whilst this sort of settlement may meet the need while comparatively few men are trickling back to Australia, it will be entirely inadequate when, at the conclusion of the war, a couple of hundred thousand men come back to our shores.

In this article I do not propose to touch on any of the schemes which have been put forward for the settlement of soldiers on the land. That I hope to deal with thoroughly in subsequent numbers. But it is perfectly obvious that to merely provide land somewhere for a returned soldier is an absurd thing to do. Arrangements will have to be made to train him as a farmer, and unless some plan of co-operative settlement be adopted it is quite safe to say that there will be no real land settlement by returned soldiers. It is foolish to suppose that a man who, during the last three years, has been thrown amongst his fellows will consent to banishment to the country where, it may be, he will not see a fellow-creature for days together.

It is pretty certain, of course, that a large number of returned soldiers will go back to their former avocations, or to the work with which they are familiar. In fact, it is estimated that probably two out of every three will be provided for in this way. The War Councils are most energetically placing returned soldiers in positions in all the States, but to secure a man a job of working an elevator, let us say, all day long, does not somehow altogether seem to satisfactorily discharge our obligations towards a soldier who has risked his life fighting for us in Turkey or France. Still, it is probably the best thing that the men just now returning should be absorbed amongst the ordinary workers, either in city or country.

In Great Britain and Canada it has been found that the period of convalescence is a most deteriorating one. The soldier is not really ill, but is not well enough to again go out into the world and compete with the efficient worker. He is at a loose end, has no duties and, in far too many cases, gets into the habit of doing nothing, which, when discharged finally as cured,

he finds almost impossible to shake off. In order to bridge this dangerous period it has been found advisable to give the convalescent work to do; in fact for his own good he ought to be compelled to do it, naturally as far as his health permits. If this problem were properly tackled the convalescent period, instead of being a dangerous and deleterious one, could be made a time of training which would prove of inestimable benefit to the soldier when he obtained his discharge. Later on I hope to give detailed particulars of what has been done in other countries in this matter, because it is urgent, as anyone can see who notices the groups of idle men in uniform standing about the street corners day after day.

The schemes of repatriation, however, have little to do with a soldier until his discharge has been given him, and just at present comparatively few men are coming back, but it is highly necessary to have perfected plans, ready for the time when the bulk of the troops return, which can be tried out to some extent on the few now returning. Probably, at the very outside, there will not be more than 100,000 men concerning whose settlement there will be any question. The remaining 200,000 will go back and resume their previous occupations. Of this hundred thousand it is probable that half will present a somewhat difficult problem, that is to say, the 50,000 will consist of many men who have got into habits of indolence and will not be able to concentrate easily on anything. Already the War Council has had experience of such men, and it will probably be necessary to appoint some sort of "authenticity court" which would ultimately have to inquire into the statements of soldiers who had not held down the jobs found for them, or had abandoned the land.

There must be a general organisation throughout the country, for it is impossible for one central authority to control the entire matter. Even a State Committee could not be expected to cover the whole territory, but it should not be impossible to arrange matters so that the different municipalities are utilised, each one being asked to hold itself responsible for the well being of the particular soldiers who had volunteered from its district.

The fact that the Government has undertaken the responsibility for the repatriation of the soldiers should not deter private individuals from carrying out efforts on their own part. For instance, many of our landowners have undeveloped estates on which they might well organise settlements or carry out afforestation. One of our esteemed Legislative Councillors in Victoria, for instance, hopes to employ from fifty to a hundred returned men in tree planting and developing an estate in Gippsland, and others might well follow his lead, taking care, as he does, that the work given does not merely lead to a blind alley. In my next article I shall set forth some of the schemes that have been put forward, and will deal with the proposals of the various States.

WHAT CAN I DO TO HELP MY COUNTRY?

This question is one which is being more and more insistently asked every day. There is probably no one in the whole of the Commonwealth who does not feel that he, or she, ought to be doing something to help. But what to do? That is the question. It may be that the best thing you can do is to make yourself physically fit, so that you can pass the doctor and go fight in France; but there are hundreds of thousands of folk who cannot enlist if they would, who yet chafe and fret because they are doing nothing directly to help win the war. It is, of course, part of the duty of the National Government to direct the energies of these willing helpers into the most useful channels; but we are too fond of leaving everything to the Government, why not get busy at once, without waiting for guidance from Mr. Hughes and his colleagues? That is the attitude of thousands to-day, thousands who are asking themselves—what practical thing can I do—and do right away?

The only way to determine what one can do is to eliminate from the obvious things those which are impossible. You cannot enlist, you cannot got out and grow wheat, you cannot undertake Red Cross work—what can you do? A careful examination of the whole question forces one to the conclusion that the best way in which one can help is to endeavour to relieve Great Britain of some of the terrific financial burden she

has to carry—try, that is, to make Australia financially self-supporting. Canada offers us a bright and shining example in this respect. She has not only raised great internal war loans, but she has actually advanced Great Britain £50,000,000. But, it may be objected, that advance was merely an accommodation, the money being used to pay for munitions manufactured in the Dominion. That is quite true, but what about our products purchased by Great Britain? Did we give the homeland an accommodation of £20,000,000 to pay for the grain we sold her? No, alas! She had to hand over the cash to us, and not only that, but for war purposes, the Federal Government has actually borrowed £50,000,000 from the British Government, and, worse still, the States have gone to the Home market for money to meet their ordinary expenditure!

Lloyd George, Sir William Robertson and other leaders have assured us that the three main requirements of Great Britain are men, munitions and money, and when President Wilson asked what the Allies most needed he was told that they wanted help in the following order: (1) Money, (2) munitions, (3) men. We have sent men to help the homeland, and an organised and special appeal is now being made throughout the length and breadth of the land for recruits. Our munitions have taken the form of wheat and meat, and those engaged in the production of these munitions are splendidly doing their bit for their country. But money—what have we done to help England with money! Nothing—worse than nothing! Instead of trying to lighten her burden we have actually added to it, looked to her for financial support, when already her people are paying £15 a head in taxes and have contributed £70 a head to war loans! In taxes we pay £4 16s. 7d. per head and have contributed £14 per head to the war loans!

What a contrast! And Australia is an immensely wealthy country, wages are far higher than at home, money is far more easily earned. Yet we, with a big bank roll, actually ask the fellow who, out of his smaller income, is paying thrice as heavy taxes as we, has already given five times as much to the war loans, to be kind enough to help us finance our own affairs! It is an intolerable situation, and one which may well make us blush for shame. But this execrable condition of things gives even the poorest of us an opportunity of helping, really and truly and practically helping, the Empire at this very moment. The Allies need money, it seems, even more than men or munitions; go to then, let us at any rate see that we do not go cap in hand to the British Government for financial assistance, let us, even if we cannot, like Canada, give the homeland financial help, at any rate pay our own way and in this manner lighten the load on the old folks at home.

Just think of it, if we, here in Australia, did as much and no more than the people of Great Britain we would raise this year a revenue of £60,000,000, and would float an internal loan for at least £200,000,000! It is true that many people here have invested in our war loan but the three together only total £56,000,000. When the next is issued it ought to be properly popularised, and whoever is in control of our finances will have to see that it is. But we need not wait until the next flotation, and in any case a loan of that nature can hardly be taken up by the man or woman of moderate means. It passes them by.

Fortunately, however, the British Government devised a method whereby the smallest wage-earner could contribute his or her mite to help finance the terrific struggle, and the Commonwealth Government has adopted the same scheme with some modifications. This method is known as the War-Saving Certificate. Anyone can purchase them. They are issued for £1, £5, £10, £50, £100, £1000, and cost the buyer 17s. 6d., £4 7s. 6d., £8 15s., £43 15s., £87 10s., and £875 respectively. They are repayable in full three years from the date of issue. The scheme is that you lend the Government 17s. 6d. for three years, and at the end of that time, get £1 returned to you; earn, that is, 4½ per cent. compound interest on your money. Not at all a bad investment, but if you earned nothing at all, merely got back what you had lent, you ought to lend.

But even in this country of high wages it is difficult for a wage-earner to spare as much as 17s. 6d. at a time, and to bring the War-Saving Certificate within his, or her, easy reach, 6d. and 2s. 6d. stamps are issued which can be pasted into a book, and when these amount to 17s. 6d. the book can be exchanged for a £1 certificate. This is a splendid scheme, for it enables everyone, even the children at school, to help finance Australia and the Empire. To every reader who is asking what can I do to help, I would say: "Buy War-Saving Certificates and try and get your friends to buy them too." It is the

one way, the immediate and obvious way, in which you can give present help. I need hardly add that I am not giving advice which I have not already followed myself.

But now that I am dealing with the question of War-Saving Certificates I cannot refrain from saying, in the strongest manner possible, that if the Government does not at once alter its method of making this scheme known amongst the people it cannot possibly expect to raise any considerable sum by this means. What is required is a daring policy at the Treasury. New ideas ought to be welcomed there. Old traditions must be scrapped. Former financial shiboleths have been shattered by this superhuman struggle. War finance has made its own rules. Bygone experience has proved delusive.

Here we have a magnificent scheme which enables every man, woman and child in the country to do his or her bit, and how has it been launched? Has the experience gained in the War-Saving Certificate campaign in England been utilised? Not a bit of it! When the scheme was announced, were the certificates and stamps ready?—Not they! Has it been made easy for all and everyone to get the certificates and stamps anywhere in the Commonwealth?—Nothing of the kind! They can only be obtained at the Commonwealth Bank, which has six branches in Australia. Imagine six places only where you can get these certificates! This is obviously playing with the thing. If it is to be made a success the Government ought to get busy at once. We need men—and the recruiting organisations have been created. We need money—as badly or perhaps even worse—and no organisation whatever has been created to get it. Advertisements and paragraphs in the papers, and bills on hoardings will sell comparatively few certificates.

What ought to be done is so obvious that it seems absurd to explain it to the powers that be. As, however, they seem to view the present fiasco with serene indifference, it is necessary to try and waken them to the fact that they are wilfully losing a golden opportunity of filling the coffers at the Exchequer. There are no end of capable people who would rejoice at the opportunity of giving their services to popularise the loan—give them, too, not sell them. One thing above all should be avoided. To get recruits is an entirely different proposition from getting money, and any attempt to ring in the recruiting committees to sell War-Savings Certificates is foredoomed to failure. What is needed is a separate organisation which might well spring out of the National Federation branches in all the States.

The first thing to do would be for the Treasurer to get together a group of capable men from the different States to take counsel with him as to the best means of letting everyone know about these certificates, and of convincing the people that it was their duty to buy as many as they could. Having settled the general lines of the campaign, these men would form State Committees, who would charge themselves with the duty of appointing sub-committees in every district to carry out propaganda work. There ought to be a Director of War Saving, just as there is a Director of Recruiting, who, if the certificates were not being sold in proper quantities in any district, would want to know the reason why. We have the English experience to go on; there is a wealth of information at the Government's disposal concerning the methods which proved most efficacious at home. The enterprise need not embark on any uncharted sea, and, properly directed, must bring a great return.

One of the first things that ought to be done, though, is to abandon the absurd attempt to confine the giving out of certificates to the six branches of the Commonwealth Bank. If a man in the back blocks has to wait for days, it may be for weeks, before he can get his certificate, he won't buy one. Obviously these certificates should be obtainable in every post-office in the land. Unless they are made easily available the finest system of publicity and canvassing is bound to fail. In Great Britain the people bought these certificates to the value of £3 a head, and most of this £120,000,000 thus raised came from the wage-earners, the men and women who worked in factory and shop, in field and pit, for a far lower reward than that earned by the Australian worker in the same walk of life.

If the workmen and clerks and women of England bought £120,000,000 worth of War-Saving Certificates, surely we in Australia should be able to buy at least £12,000,000 worth, ought to easily absorb double that amount. The Government should set a definite goal before it, £20,000,000 or £30,000,000, and go all out to get it. To launch the idea and leave it to look after itself is absurd, and yet that has been done. If steps are not speedily taken to popularise the certificates, the whole scheme will end in fiasco.

HISTORY IN CARICATURE.

Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—*Burns.*

It is only now that the German cartoons concerning the peace suggestions made by Berlin and America have reached Australia. Neutral papers, too, dealing with the subject are only now arriving.

The English cartoon papers are chiefly concerned, at present, with the submarine campaign, and all show a very sanguine feeling that the navy will be able to cope with the menace. The cartoon in *The Passing Show* refers presumably to the action off the Dutch coast some months ago, but it fits equally well into that in the mouth of the Thames, in which Captain Evans, of Antarctic fame, so distinguished himself.

John Bull.] [London.

TO THE DEATH.

John Bull and the Prussian Devil-Fish.

There is a very significant contrast in *Le Rire's* cartoon of a collapse in Germany and *Jugend's* cartoon which suggests that the Germans are drawing large supplies from the Roumanian oil wells. In this

Westminster Gazette.] [London.

A DESPERATE CHARACTER.

"Gimme somethin' to eat or I'll smash yer winders!"

La Victoire.] [Paris.

GOTT STRAFE ENGLAND!

WILHELM (*to the good old German god*): "What are you doing? My vessels are also being sunk!!"

Le Rire.] [Paris.

"THERE MUST BE A LEAKAGE SOMEWHERE: SHE IS COLLAPSING.

The Passing Show.] [London.

NOT CRICKET!

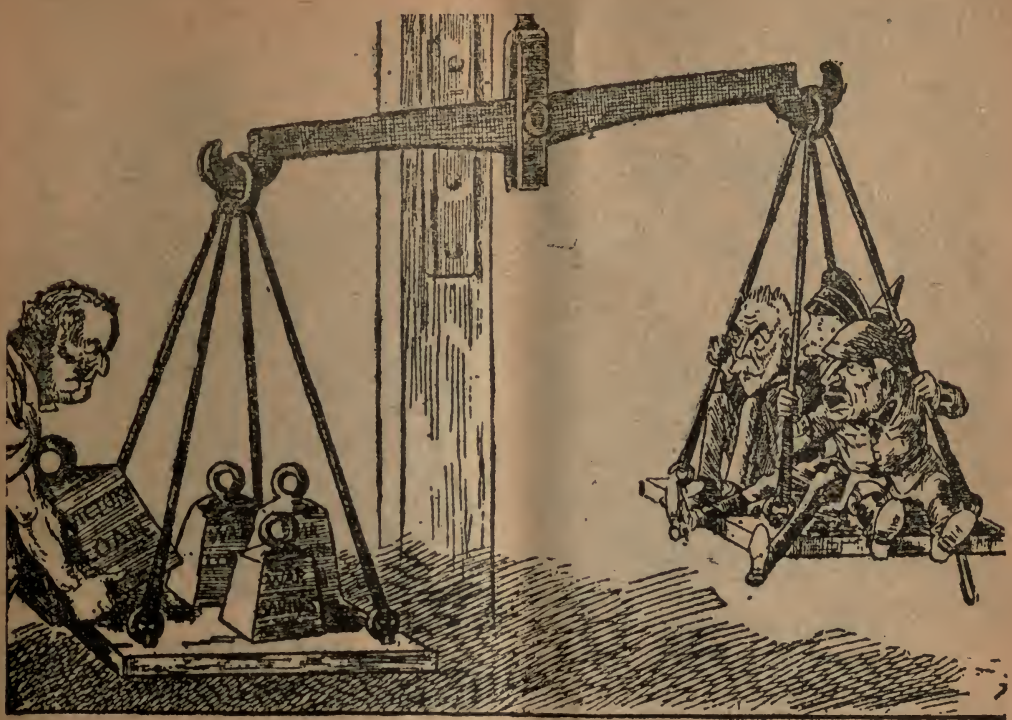
THE HOLLANDER: "Hullo, Deutscher! What's happened?"

LIEUTENANT SCHWANKENHEIM (*of the High Seas Fleet*): "Ve vos busy commanding der North Sea ven der Englisch Navy attack us unfairly, and—and ve 'ad a slight accident."

Jugend.] [Munich.

AT THE ROUMANIAN PETROL SPRINGS.

"At the source sat the boy!"



The Westminster Gazette.] [London.

IN THE SCALES.

The bigger the "Victory Loan" the higher the beam will kick.

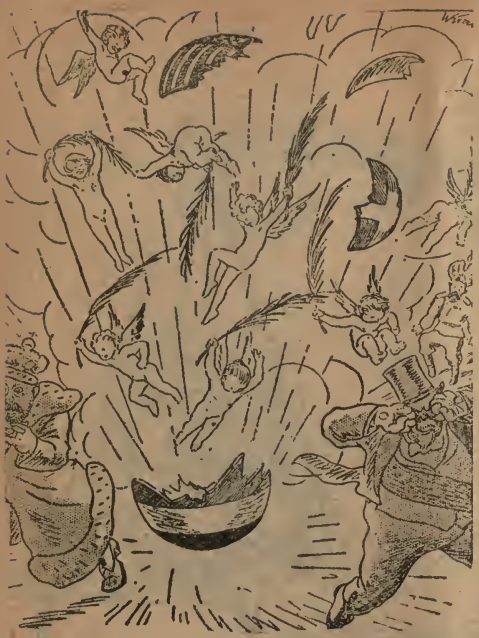
Times.] [Louisville.

THE ALLIES' IDEA OF PEACE.

connection we have been assured officially that a special British mission utterly destroyed these wells, and that they cannot be repaired for at least twelve months.

A similar claim, by the way, was made by the Germans concerning the ships in American harbours, whose machinery they had destroyed, but already we are told some of these ships have gone to sea, carrying supplies for the Allies.

The note of all the advertising which caused the Victory Loan in Great Britain to reach such a great figure was the blow that would be dealt to Germany if it proved a gigantic success. This idea is well conveyed by Sir F.C.G. in his cartoon, entitled "In the Scales." It is apparent that the £1,000,000,000 obtained by the Victory Loan will, at the present rate of expenditure, be exhausted in four months, and another will certainly have to be raised by October!



Kladderadatsch.] [Berlin.

A FATAL SITUATION.

The Peace bomb in the Entente Lager.

Wahre Jacob.] [Stuttgart.

THE PEACE DEMONSTRATION.

"The Allied Diplomats will have nothing of Peace, your Majesty. What shall I do?"

"Ask the people!"

"I had just thought of that—see, *they* are all united for peace!"

De Telegraaf.] [Amsterdam

PEACE PROPOSALS.

MARS: "In 1914 you thrust aside all intervention and you swore by the mailed fist. Now you also must feel it!"

The German cartoonists tell their readers that the Kaiser's peace proposals mightily upset the Allies, and caused divisions in their councils. The prompt manner in which the Allied Governments turned down these proposals certainly does not bear out this suggestion!

Mac, in *The Cape Times*, goes a good deal further than any other Allied cartoonist in suggesting that there was some connection between the peace note of President Wilson and the Kaiser's proposals. It is, of course, well known now that such connection did not exist, in fact, the American suggestions were undoubtedly prejudiced by those made by the Kaiser.

The German papers endeavour to bring out the difference between the pacifists in America and those who desired to go into the war. Such a cartoon is that in *Jugend*, showing Uncle Sam as the Siamese twins, standing on a heap of dollars.

The American *Des Moines Register* rubs in the fact that whilst President Wilson was preaching peace to Europe his own little wards in the New World were having a royal old scrap.

Cape Times.]

PEACE "DOVES."

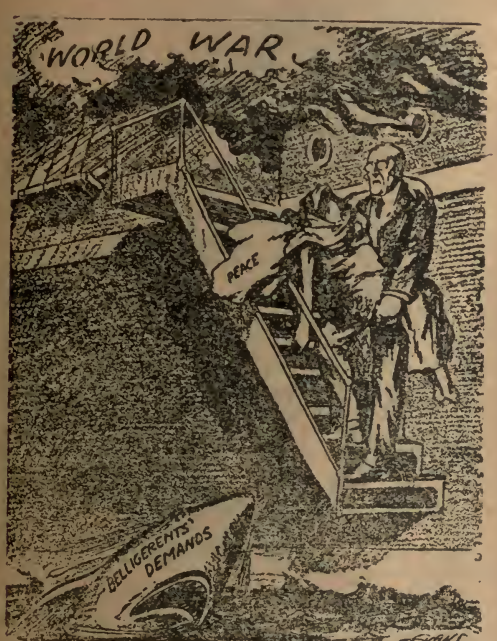
AMERICAN EAGLE (to British Lion): "Say! I'm in no way connected with the bird that's just left."

BRITISH LION: "Only an unfortunate resemblance, eh!"

Jugend.] [Munich.

COMPLICATED NATURE.

Peace Jonathan in violent conflict with War Jonathan.



The American.] [Baltimore.

WHICH WAY NOW?

Register.] [Des Moines.

THE PROVERBIAL PREACHER'S SONS.

KAISER: "I don't know why they talk about the ferocity of my soldiers. No one desires peace more than they do."

Novi Satirikon.] [Petrograd.

Opinion.] [London.

THE AWAKENING.

UNCLE SAM: "And I always thought until now it was a man!"

The Passing Show.] [London.

THE ELEVENTH HOUR RECRUIT.

PRESIDENT WILSON: "Say, boys, here I am! Now what can I do to help?"

JOHN BULL: "Well, Woodrow, we are holding the gentleman at all points, but you can help me sit on his bread-basket, though he is already feeling the pressure pretty severely!"

THREE NOTABLE FRENCHMEN.

By E. M. Marc Loge.

I.—General Nivelle.

General Nivelle's Anglo-French origin seems specially to designate him as chosen by Fate to lead the Entente armies to victory. His nomination as French Commander-in-Chief will intensify the ever-growing friendship and sympathy existing between *poilu* and Tommy. Although the youngest general in the French Army, he is sixty-one years of age. He is very tall and atheltic in appearance, but nevertheless so slim as to appear fully fifteen years younger than he really is. His unwrinkled, youthful face, lit by steel-grey eyes which can on occasion be very keen and hard, is barred by a grey moustache. In the light blue French uniform he looks alert and trim; he looks a man of affairs, quiet success seems written all over him, though he has not that unusual, yet curiously fascinating expression that Joffre's face wears.

General Nivelle is greatly attached to England, which he calls "*ma terre maternelle.*" His mother was a daughter of the Rev. Thomas Pennington, rector of Tunstal, and chaplain to Archbishop Secker. The Rev. Mr. Pennington had a taste for travelling, and in 1825 he published, in two volumes, the *résumé* of his peregrinations on the Continent of Europe. Though keenly observant, a quality possessed also by his grandson, the General, Thomas Pennington seems to have possessed to a quite remarkable degree that characteristic insular prejudice of the Briton concerning all the points on which the inhabitants of the countries visited differed from his own countrymen.

General Nivelle, as a child, used to visit his English relatives frequently. He must have retained an excellent remembrance of the months he spent in Britain, for, during one of his most recent visits to England, as Commander-in-Chief of the French armies, he expressed the pleasure it gave him to see Dover again, as it reminded him of his boyhood. He had continued to visit England regularly, spending many summers at St. Leonards-on-Sea, and never neglecting his English friends.

General Nivelle inherits his military abilities directly from both his English and his French ancestors. The Pennington Sparrow family of Deal counts many military and naval officers amongst its members, whilst Colonel Nivelle, the General's father, commanded the Legion of the "*Garde Nationale*," of Durkirk in the "other war" of 1870. During the *séances* of drilling on the Esplanade of Dunkirk, General Nivelle remembers that he was wont to hang on the skirt of his father's tunic, in order that he should miss nothing of the exercises which fascinated him. And he still bears proudly the sword of honour the town of Dunkirk presented to his father. Surely this is the happiest example of "L'Entente Cordiale"—a great Frenchman, leader of the victorious French Army, bearing in his veins the same blood as the gallant lads of Britain.

Strangely enough Nivelle had been only moderately successful until the war gave him his opportunity. He was a Colonel commanding the Fifth Regiment of Artillery, and was about to be retired. But his brilliance and audacity did not go unmarked. On October 24th, 1914, he was promoted to General of Brigade, and soon after placed in command of a division. He was given command of an Army Corps on December 23, 1915.

All those who have approached General Nivelle are conscious of an arresting and strong personality. Much given to meditation, he speaks rarely, but always to good effect. His words carry weight amongst his men, by whom he is adored. To them he is aureoled by legend. They never tire of relating anecdotes concerning their intrepid chief.

They often speak of September 7, 1914—a date for ever famous in French history—when at nightfall a furious German attack, supported by strong artillery preparation, was delivered against the front of the 7th Army, then commanded by General Manoury. The men were not as yet used to that unexpected device of the enemy, who was using heavy artillery in the field, and the 63rd Division had, moreover, lost most of its officers. Those who were left vainly strove to encourage their men gradually stricken with panic. Nivelle, who was then only a Colonel commanding the artillery, saw and immediately realised the growing danger of retreat. He demanded, and obtained leave, to act as he wished in such critical

circumstances. Five artillery batteries, all harnessed, were awaiting the order to go forward, covered by the infantry.

"Forward!" ordered Nivelle, placing himself at their head.

In the ever-gathering dusk the astounded soldiers beheld the horsemen pass them at full gallop, like fantastic visions, racing toward the lines of the enemy. And suddenly a storm of shell-fire burst from those batteries, hammering at the dazed Germans. Seeing this, the French became confident once more, and in an impetuous onrush regained all the ground they had previously lost.

This is only one of the many anecdotes Nivelle's *poilus* tell of him; they are also fond of praising his audacity—as they greatly admire the man *who dares*. General Nivelle fears neither responsibility nor danger, and thus exerts a sort of dual magnetism over the spirits of his men, whom he knows by name, never forgetting a face. They have, moreover, a perfect trust in him. Nivelle is a keen psychologist, for he knows the words, the deeds, the personal example, which will serve as the necessary spur at the critical moment.

Nivelle clings to the theory of constant improvement. He is the friend of inventors, and is always ready and eager to test any new device of warfare that is presented to him. It is this willingness to receive fresh information, to listen, to investigate the various inventions brought to his notice that has made Nivelle worthy to follow in the footsteps of "Père Joffre."

In January, 1915, whilst commanding a brigade near Soissons, when asked by one of his subordinates what tactics he was going to follow in a far from reassuring situation, he answered unhesitatingly:

"I'm going to attack. It is the only way to break the incessant progress of the enemy."

Nivelle, moreover, knows exactly what he can demand and expect of his "children," as he calls his men—and he does not hesitate, when compelled by circumstances, to exact from them almost superhuman efforts.

When at Verdun certain of the generals under him expressed their doubt that the men would be able to advance on account of the condition of the ground, practically a sea of mud, General Nivelle answered confidently:—

"If I ask them to do so, they will!"

In a few hours' time the French had advanced four miles!

June 23, 1916, was the culminating point of the enemy's desperate efforts before Verdun. Nivelle knew that the hour was decisive. He sent out to his men the following ringing order of the day, comparable only to that of Joffre at the battle of the Marne. Both will for ever continue to sound like clarions through the glorious history of France:—

"The hour is decisive. Feeling themselves trapped on all sides, the Germans are delivering on our front furious, desperate onslaughts in the hope of reaching the gates of Verdun before being attacked in their turn by the united forces of the Allied Armies. My comrades, you will not allow them to pass! The country demands of you this supreme effort; the army of Verdun will not be intimidated by those German shells and soldiers whose assaults it has broken for the past four months; it will know how to preserve its glory untouched!"

Electrified by this appeal, the soldiers of Verdun, whom General Nivelle himself compares to the old guard of Napoleon, repulsed the Germans before Souville and held them at bay. General Nivelle, however, was resolved to transform this French victory into a crushing German defeat; he realised this plan on October 28, 1916, when his troops retook Douaumont in, as he declared, "the grandest effort in history."

To him the destiny of the Anglo-French Army is now entrusted. We may feel confident that he will know how to accomplish the task which he has been appointed to achieve. For is he not, as a young officer answered when asked what manner of soldier his General was, "*A man*"?

II.—M. Herriot.

A round, strong face with quick, serious eyes, thick hair and eyebrows, and a small moustache, intense common sense, a fine lucidity of judgment, a calm, though audacious initiative—such are the principal physical and moral traits which particularly strike one in M. Edouard Herriot, the new Minister of Transportation.

Born at Troyes in 1872, he was enabled, unlike M. Claveille, to pursue his studies to their legitimate end. He was a student of St. Barbe's College in Paris, and then entered the Superior Normal School, which he left with the degree of *agrégé de Lettres* (Fellow of Letters). He was for several years professor at the Lycée of Nantes, from whence he passed to the Lycée of

Lyons, to which town he has ever since remained attached.

His professorial career did not satisfy his latent activities; he therefore presented himself at the election for the town council, and, once elected, he immediately assumed considerable importance. In 1904, when only thirty-two years of age, he became Mayor of the second city of France, succeeding M. Augagneur.

His first care was to strive to suppress politics from his administration, aiming at economical progress, which he achieved with great success as he is endowed with a remarkably clear, concise mind opposed to all ideology. But he is, at the same time, a man of great intellectual culture.

In 1905 he attracted the attention of the literary world by publishing an extremely complete and documented study on "Madame de Récamier and her Friends."

He strove hard to bring about greater union in the relations existing between employers and workmen, created several important social organisations, and effected many reforms. In 1912 he was elected Senator, but took no part in political combinations, passing most of his time at Lyons.

M. Herriot threw himself with his accustomed ardour into war enterprises. He was the first to create in France a school of re-education for mutilated soldiers. He organised popular canteens, a model hospital, and different relief organisations for the prisoners and refugees, which are under the special supervision of Madame Herriot.

The inhabitants of Lyons, to whatever party they may belong, are devoted to their "maire," who is endowed with the prestige of real culture which exerts so profound a power over all classes of Frenchmen.

When called to his new post of Minister of Transportation he persuaded the "Conseil Municipal" of Lyons to hold its sitting henceforth on Sundays, and each Saturday evening M. Herriot takes the train for Lyons, where he presides at the meeting of the Town Council on Sunday, returning to Paris the same evening.

M. Herriot is at present devoting all his attention to the coal question. He is constantly visiting transport centres, taking the most radical and often very simple measures which no one had thought of to solve existing difficulties.

When assuming his new post, M. Herriot sent the following general order to all his subordinates:—

"Let each one know that I will support him in any initiative he may take."

Nothing reveals better than this phase the character and method of working of the Minister of Transportation, who thus breaks distinctly away from the traditional routine of French administration—a routine which repressed and discouraged all private initiative on the part of its officials.

III.—M. Claveille.

M. Albert Claveille, the new Under-Secretary of State for Transportation, was born in a small township of Lodogne, Tuilière, January 1, 1865. He is therefore just fifty-two years old. His parents were innkeepers, and far from striving to hide the fact he greatly encourages his mother in continuing to hold the family inn, for, as he declares to those who seem rather astonished that he should allow her to do so, "it means health for her."

He was educated at the college of Bergerac, but remained there only until the age of sixteen, as his parents could ill afford such an expense. He therefore entered the "Département des Ponts et Chaussées" as auxiliary clerk, with a very small salary. After some time spent in patient, steady work he was promoted to the situation of clerk, and later to that of road surveyor. He occupied for some years several subordinate positions, but entered in 1889 the Maritime Services of the Département of the Gironde, where he remained until 1896.

These years were not, however, spent in vain, for M. Claveille found time to perfect his education by studying late at night. He succeeded in passing his matriculation (*baccalauréat*), and even obtained his degree of *licence ès Science*. Thanks to his perseverance, he was admitted to the Ecole Nationale des Ponts et Chaussées, although the examination of admission was extremely difficult; three years later he left the famous school, having won his "First."

Appointed Controlling Engineer of the railway at Perigueux, the county town of his native "département," he occupied this position for four years, at the end of which time he was called to Paris, where he was given an important post. Three years later he became Chief Engineer of the "Département des Ponts et Chaussées."

Until then to the uninitiated he was merely a high official who had started his career ten years later than his colleagues. However, the inevitable "tide in the affairs of men" surged towards him in a

most unexpected form. Thanks to his exceptional aptitude and great organising gifts, he was able to take full advantage of it.

At this time the French Government bought back the Chemin de Fer de l'Ouest —which became better known, too well known in fact, as l'Ouest-Etat—and was struggling amidst innumerable difficulties, striving to restore some semblance of order to a terribly confused state of affairs. The former company, having been threaened with nationalisation for several years, had ceased to make any repairs; its material when worn out was not replaced; its permanent way as cheaply repaired as possible; intense disorder reigned through the whole system.

Trains never left or arrived on time. The whole system was disorganised, and officials ran hither and thither in the utmost perplexity. The confusion was extreme. Things were in this chaotic state when M. Claveille was made Director of the Ouest-Etat. In a few months' time he had it running almost normally, and the manner in which he accomplished this miracle was most simple and practical.

He visited all the system in detail, travelled ceaselessly, arrived unexpectedly in the most remote stations, and without revealing his identity inspected everything silently, noting the errors and deficiencies of the organisation.

One day some porters caught sight of a traveller busy hoisting his trunk upon a trolly, which he proceeded to wheel towards the luggage van. They ran towards him indignantly, clamouring:

"Oh! there, what are you doing?"

"Since you won't do your work, allow me to do it," retorted the unknown traveller. "I've a right to work if I want to. I'm the director."

It was M. Claveille himself.

The next day he was elsewhere noting everything, to the great discomfort of his subordinates.

When starting on his inspecting tour he had declared, "I'm going to bore them; it's the only way of getting at them."

It was after a few incidents like the one mentioned that the employees began to dread him. To their terrorised imaginations M. Claveille appeared a sort of fearful Jack-in-the-box, continually appearing at unexpected moments. He soon succeeded in infusing into the whole system a feverish activity which had excellent results.

When Albert Thomas assumed the Ministry of Munitions he immediately called M. Claveille to second him, and the latter has worked with him ceaselessly since the beginning of the war. It is largely to him we owe the amazing development of the manufacture of munitions and also the signing of important contracts between European and American factories.

Several of his favourite phrases could form a most useful text-book for aspiring young business men who are out for success. They are a *résumé* of his character and methods of working.

Thus he is fond of saying: "The best way of keeping one's promises is never to make any," and he also adds with a sly smile: "Better write nothing; it's the best way of surely agreeing about the text."

He reveals the intense self-reliance of his character by this phrase: "If I ask for advice here and there I shall surely be submerged by useless observations. Whereas if I consult no one I shall receive many less."

One secret of his great working powers is no doubt his faculty for sleeping where and when he wishes, in the train, on a chair—anywhere. He never takes any notice of meal hours, and yet his strength seems unimpaired by this reckless use of his physique. He is endowed with an exceptional lucidity of mind and abhors all red-tape and reports. His resolution is swift, and he exacts prompt action from his subordinates, who are in great fear of his unfailing memory. M. Claveille never, never forgets an order he has given!

He has no society manners, no care for elegance. When it rains he may be seen comfortably enveloped in a waterproof cloak with thick-soled shoes, and he is apt to take the Métro just like any other "bourgeois" of Paris.

When the French Cabinet was recently re-formed on a new war basis, M. Claveille was named Under-Secretary of State for Transportation. He is bringing his accustomed activity to bear upon the problem entrusted to him. His first care has been to undertake rapid journeys to different railway centres, and he has already succeeded in mobilising 6000 waggons, which were shirking their duty here and there in different corners of France, reclaiming one here, ten there, a hundred at the next place. Thanks to his practical activity the transport and coal crises which for some time past have assumed serious proportions, will be soon greatly relieved.

THE GERMANS IN BRAZIL.

Interest in the German colonies in Brazil has been greatly quickened by the decision of Brazil to break off diplomatic negotiations with Germany, and the possibility of that South American Republic plunging into the struggle. Comparatively little definite information is available about these German settlers in the Portuguese-American republic. In our last number we gave some general information concerning them. It was there mentioned that Mr. Bingham, who is a recognised authority on South America, says that the Germans in Southern Brazil are a negligible factor in international affairs. He made this assertion as late as 1911, and knew what he was talking about. At the same time he probably did not consider the possible effect a world war like this would have on the Teutonic communities of Brazil, should that country go to war with Germany. Many years ago, when I was on a visit to Berlin, considerable space was devoted in the newspapers to trouble which had arisen over the use of the German flag by some enthusiastic Germans in Brazil. At that time, the Kaiser's Government very much discouraged any idea that it would take these colonists under its wing. The incident, however, caused general discussion of the possible future of the German communities there, and it then appeared that strong efforts were being made by some of the colonists to preserve Teutonic traditions and keep alive love of the fatherland amongst those who had left it to settle in Brazil. There was also talk of a systematic attempt on the part of certain people in Germany to encourage emigration to Brazil, with the object of planting across the Atlantic a flourishing state which might some time come into closer political relations with Germany. The German emigration statistics since then disclose the fact that little success can have followed this scheme, which at that time was certainly frowned upon by the powers that were in Berlin.

It would seem that only a few hundred people went direct from Germany to Brazil every year since the beginning of this century. It is possible that others went *via* the United States or by other routes. In fact, this must have been the case, because the Brazilian statistics disclose the fact that during 1911 4223 Germans entered the country, and during 1912 the number who came in had increased to 5733. These are classed as immigrants, but it is quite possible that, included in these figures are Germans who visited Brazil and went away again, either for trade or personal reasons. According to the Brazilian statistics, between the years 1820 and 1912, 116,150 Germans and 75,774 Austrians came into Brazil as immigrants. During the same period the country received 1,327,808 Italians, 883,351 Portuguese, and 92,473 Russians. It would seem that there are in Brazil over half a million people of Teutonic extraction. If these had been scattered all over the country, they would have little influence, but, unlike the Portuguese and the Italians, who have spread themselves all over Brazil, and have rapidly dropped their own nationality and become Brazilians, the Germans have settled almost entirely in the two provinces of Rio Grande Do Sul and Santa Catharina, although some of them are to be found in the provinces of Sau Paulo and Parama. They have established almost independent communities, where German is spoken and Teutonic habits are retained, although intermarriage with the Brazilians has undoubtedly sapped rigid adherence to European customs.

The total population of Rio Grande is 1,200,000, and the Italians in the State probably outnumber the Germans, but they have not preserved their national characteristics to anything like the extent that the Germans have done, and they occupy on the whole a lower position in the State, that is to say, they act as labourers, the Germans are for the most part small farmers. The reason for the large influx of Portuguese and Italians was the suppression of slavery in 1887. Since then no more negroes have been introduced into the country; the great number who were already living there were emancipated, and a large demand for labour showed itself. It was to meet this demand that the Portuguese and Italians crossed the Atlantic. Santa Catharina is a small state, and is very largely dominated by the Germans. It lies immediately to the north of Rio Grande. In the revolutionary struggles of 1893-5 the German communities held strictly aloof, and maintained rigid neutrality. They went so far as to protect themselves from marauding attempts on their property by establishing armed guards, and they permitted neither Government nor revo-

lutionary troops to enter their territory. It is mentioned that in these German colonies the coloured servants are obliged to learn German instead of the Germans learning the language of the country. Some of the towns are entirely Teutonic, the Mayor, councillors, police and National Guard being all German speaking, but hitherto these men have been exceedingly good Brazilians. The English immigrants, of whom during the last hundred years there have been only 16,000, have for the most part lost their mother tongue, and been merged in the general population.

The States of Rio Grande and Santa Catharina and Sau Paulo are the most progressive in Brazil, and this is largely attributed to the German colonists. They have introduced up-to-date methods of agriculture and of stock raising, and have generally developed the country. It could, however, produce far more than it does at present, as is shown by the progress which has been made by Uruguay, the small republic which lies immediately south of Rio Grande Do Sul. At one time Uruguay was a province of the Brazilian Empire, but declared its independence in 1825. Uruguay and the most southern province of Brazil have much in common and are very similar in many respects. They both occupy a narrow neck of land, which stretches down between Argentine and the South Atlantic. The revolt of the Uruguains reft half of this strip from Brazil; the other half is occupied by Rio Grande, which is bounded on the west by Argentine, on the south by Uruguay, on the east by the ocean, and on the north by the Pelotus River, which separates it from Santa Catharina and Brazil proper. It is probable that, before long, Rio Grande will develop as Uruguay has developed. That progressive little republic has to-day some 9,000,000 head of cattle, 26,000,000 sheep, and over 1,000,000 horses. That is to say, this State, smaller than Victoria, and peopled by about the same number of folk, has more than twice as many horses, six times as many cattle and twice as many sheep. Much of the sheep is bred for market, consequently the value of the wool exported is only about the same as that produced in Victoria. Particulars concerning the stock in Rio Grande are meagre, but ten years ago the province exported 375,000 tons of beef and large quantities of hides and tallow. It is said that there are over 7,000,000 head of cattle there to-day.

The first attempt at German colonisation in Brazil was made by John VI. in 1818-19. He founded two German towns in Bahia and a Swiss one near Rio de Janeiro. In 1851 the Emperor Don Pedro invited the Germans to come to Brazil, and founded the colony of Blumenau in Santa Catharina, and that of Porto Alegre and others in Rio Grande. Prussia, however, eight years later, passed a law prohibiting emigration to Brazil. A somewhat grandiose scheme was recently evolved which called for the settlement of 20,000 Japanese in the Iguape Valley, in Sau Paulo, to engage in the production of rice, tea and silk worms. Five thousand Japs went there in 1908, and 1500 in 1913, but the scheme has not been carried through. For Germany or any other Power to seize a portion of the South American continent would be a breach of the Monroe doctrine, which the United States would resist by force, if necessary, but the Government at Washington would not consider it an infringement of that sacred doctrine if a province of any of the South American republics chose to revolt and make itself independent.

That has always been the incipient danger of the German settlement in Rio Grande and Santa Catharina. Some day these Germans, strong and united, might have so resented certain laws or legislation passed by the Brazilian Government, that they might have seceded from the republic and set up a State of their own, and, quite conceivably, have successfully defied all the efforts of Brazil to subdue them. The United States would not have interfered in the matter before the war, but would have vetoed any demand on the part of the new State to have German protection against Brazil. A difficult situation would undoubtedly have arisen, supposing that the revolting province had been invaded by Brazilian troops, and the people there had appealed to Germany to help them secure their independence. This war has, of course, altered the attitude of the United States towards any internal revolution that might occur in Brazil. Trouble would only arise if Brazil actively joined the Allies against Germany. Any insurrection in Rio Grande would then be regarded as a German move against one of the Allies, and would be treated as such by them. Still there can be no doubt that the presence of a powerful and concentrated group of Germans in her most progressive provinces cannot but act as a deterrent against Brazil entering the struggle.

IS OUR STARVATION BLOCKADE EFFECTUAL?

Two years ago we were assured that the Germans had begun to feel the pinch of hunger, and since then we have been constantly misled about the economic condition of the country; so much so that we have become exceedingly sceptical concerning the reports of food shortage there. A writer in *The National Review* contributes an article on the subject based upon what he asserts is reliable information from different sources, both public and private. He comes to the conclusion that the economic condition of the country is a matter which is giving the Government the very gravest concern. The prospects of the next harvest, he asserts, are by no means rosy, and even the Prussian Minister of Agriculture admits that the farmers are handicapped by the lack of skilled labour and fertilisers.

Lack of fodder is more pronounced than ever, and there is an ever-lengthening list of articles the use of which is prohibited for the feeding of animals, and it seems to be recognised that the so-called substitutes are not much use. Arrangements are being made for the wholesale slaughter of the animals which cannot be fed, and so long as the present shortage of fodder continues there can be no real improvement in the supply of meat, fat, milk or butter. The relative failure of the potato crop is, however, the factor which has contributed towards the economic crisis. Supplies of milk and butter are steadily declining, and there does not seem to be any hope of improvement there. Four-fifths of the raw cocoa and cocoa preparations have been commandeered for army use, and this involves further reduction in the aggregate of food available for the civilian population. This writer considers that there is no foundation for the statement that soldiers are suffering from underfeeding. There is reason to believe, he says, that despite the reluctance of the Roumanian peasantry to destroy their grain the enemy have not so far secured any very big quantity of food stuff in that country, and the German General Staff is alleged to be keenly disappointed over the result of the campaign on which so much was staked.

Another difficulty with which Germany has to contend is the shortage of transport. The army monopolises the lion's share of the carrying capacity of the railways, whose rolling stock has suffered from continuous wear and tear. He estimates that one-fourth of the rolling stock requires repair, that the engines are constantly breaking down, possibly as a result of substituting iron for copper in the boilers and other parts of the machinery. There is shortage of coal, due to the insufficient transport, and also of firewood, clothes, leather, soap and lamp oil. Even hospitals, he says, and public kitchens, are alleged to be without soda, and the public health is described as "seriously menaced by this want.' There is an increasing lack of the various metals required for hardening steel. "The stocks of wool, cotton and leather, and kindred goods, are in all probability approaching the vanishing point." He asserts that "hunger and hunger alone has compelled the German people to clamour for peace, and forced the German Government to make overtures last year."

Visitors to Germany declare that they see practically no butter, and find the people living mainly on potatoes and fish. This hardly agrees with the previous statement concerning the failure of the potato crop, and the recent announcements that the meat ration has been increased! We are told also that, owing to the mining of the North Sea and the holding up of the Norwegian fish supplies, the Germans have had to do without fish! According to one neutral correspondent everyone in Germany shows that yellowish tinge in the skin and the whites of the eyes which is a characteristic sign of jaundice. Foreigners report that they are made ill by the food substitutes to which they are compelled to resort, and some go as far as to describe the state of Germany as terrible.

A Swedish man of business visiting in Germany said that the shortage of food was the one constant preoccupation, and exercised a notable effect on the spirits of the people. People told him that they could not work properly as they were so hungry all the time. On the other hand, this particular observer stated that the rumours of food riots were exaggerated.

A Dutch foreman of works, who had been in Germany for about ten years, and was now out of business owing to the war, gave a similar account of the internal plight of the Gott strafers. He had not had any milk for at least six months and had lost several stone through under-feeding. There was a general lack of warm clothing and of woollen socks. Butter and food fats were equally wanting, and this witness declared that there

were food riots and risings all over the country. In fact, he came away with the conviction that Germany could not go on much longer from famine.

Another neutral visitor says that he found signs of starvation in many of the poorer districts throughout Germany, and another states that the inhabitants of the towns are subjected to unheard-of sufferings. All the food that is left is reserved for the troops, and the civilian population must live as best it can from day to day. Germany, he says, lives in fear of a revolution, for the working classes are suffering terribly from the war. Their patience is at an end, and nothing can restrain them when once driven to despair, so that Germany must have peace before her food gives out altogether. A repatriated Englishwoman, who had lived for years in Bremen, asserts that the people have practically nothing to eat. The bread was bad, which is not surprising, as the bakers eked out their flour with sawdust.

Letters tell the same story, though they rarely contain anything which is not notorious. Some of the most striking are from soldiers who have been home on leave and depict their grief at the sufferings of their families, which are so much worse than they had ever imagined, some of them declaring that they would prefer to die at the front rather than see their wives and children starving. An uncensored letter which had been smuggled out of Germany contained the following sentence—which, considering all things, will not be ungratifying to the readers of "The National Review," who have been encouraged, even in the darkest hours of the war, to believe that if we only stuck to it and did our duty we should ultimately win: "If things continue as they are, the English plan will soon be accomplished, as there will be absolutely nothing more to be had here." Then follows the customary complaint about the daily ration of food, the struggle to get it and the immense prices that have to be paid, the writer concluding as follows:—"Butter is what we miss most. Everybody feels the lack of fat and is losing weight. The people all look like ghosts. If you have not seen anybody for some time you get quite a fright."

A member of the crew of a vessel plying to Stettin says that on their last visit a crowd of hungry men and women attempted to storm the ship. The men on board could not keep the people out, and the German authorities were obliged to put an armed guard on the quay. At Lübeck and Stettin he saw great crowds of hungry women, children and men wandering up and down, asking for food from the ships that came in, and even people of the better classes go on board to ask for butter and fat. This writer asserts that although some visitors are sceptical concerning food riots, others record risings in Posen, Breslau, Hanover, Saxony, Wurtemberg, and in the Rhine Provinces. In consequence of controversy over the distribution of food relations between Bavaria and Prussia are becoming strained, according to this writer and neutral visitors to Saxony, report a growing feeling against Prussian domination and Prussian demands.

There is, he says, an obvious connection between the scarcity of food and a military collapse, but it is impossible to predict the degree of scarcity required to secure the desired end. History is full of instances of beleaguered places that have held out until their condition had become intolerable. In the judgment of competent observers there are few communities that would hold out longer than Germany, provided she has enough food to keep body and soul together. It is possible that, "in the event of a decisive military disaster, emphasising the present economic conditions, we shall see a debacle such as history has rarely witnessed." In conclusion he says:—

One would not be justified in declaring that our strangle-hold is yet fatal, nor would one venture to hazard the assurance that Germany would be unable to struggle through the intervening months before the next harvest. The problem confronting the German Government is undoubtedly formidable, and may, as we all hope, prove too much for them. But, on the other hand, it would be dangerous to aver that, speaking from the economic point of view, the existence of Germany is actually threatened, and that we may expect a collapse in the coming spring. Let us hope so, but it would be unsafe to act as though it would be so.

It is curious to read in the same papers assertions that the Germans are starving, that they lack essential supplies for the making of munitions and the clothing of the army, and definite announcements concerning the certainty of the war continuing for years, and American preparations for a struggle which is expected to last for three years at least! We have two strings to our victory bow, one our mighty armies in the field, and the other, our blockade, the object of which is to bring about a state of affairs in Germany where food is so scarce that children, women and men have nothing to eat and must either surrender or perish miserably. It seems that our second string is bringing about the result we hoped for.

Further information concerning the internal condition of Germany is given in *Current History*, on the authority partly of the correspondent of the *New York Times* and partly on that of Americans who have been for some time in Germany and left the country with Ambassador Gerard. Mr. Oscar K. Davis, who represented the *New York Times* in Germany for some time before diplomatic negotiations were broken off, says that those who have been accustomed to the restaurants and hotels of Germany stand aghast in France and Switzerland at the prodigal and extraordinary waste of food. In Germany the last scrap of sauce and gravy is scraped from the plates and nothing goes back to the kitchen. In Paris you find sauce and gravy abandoned in unthinkable quantities and bread, meat, potatoes and every kind of thing good to eat sent away from the table hardly touched. You are simply overwhelmed by the contrast.

"It is under such circumstances," continues Mr. Davis, "that you come to a keener realisation of how the organisation and control of her food supplies in their production, collection, and distribution is evidence, not that Germany is starving to-day, but that she is likely by these very means to win through to the bitter end without starvation. Hardship, privation, underfeeding, and for some of her people insufficient nourishment, Germany unquestionably endures to-day, with three or four severe months yet to sustain before she finds relief from new crops. But if those new crops respond in fair measure to the efforts Germany is making on them, her food problem will be postponed, in great measure, for yet another year.

Some American scientists were able to carry out interesting observations, although the German officials did not show themselves eager to help them. Their report will tell of mal-nutrition, under nourishment, aenemia, low blood count and similar scientific terms, meaning that those to whom they are applied have not had food in sufficient quantities or of proper quality.

A trusted observer of food conditions in Germany reported to the State Department at Washington on March 14 that 20,000,000 people directly connected with the German Army or Government, 20,000,000 in the rural population, and about 8,000,000 wealthy people were well fed, but that the rest, about 20,000,000, were in a serious plight.

Another correspondent states that the present condition is not one of actual starvation but there is much suffering in spots and Germany faces a crisis between now and harvest. He concludes that unless the submarine war prospers Germany can hardly escape an upheaval.

The misery resulting from the food conditions is observable in every face. The Government took all possible precautions, but while 60 per cent. turnips could make bulk, it couldn't make nutriment. A thick soup of cabbage and turnips, a bit of meat, and a trace of grease could be bought at the community kitchens in the cities for 6 cents (30 pfennigs), and bread at 1 cent a slice, but thirty minutes after eating, one was hungry again.

Mothers and babies are without milk, and the suffering is great. While the effect of the food conditions on the public morale is temporarily offset by hysterical loyalty, physical causes must prevail over psychological in the end.

Greater Berlin is now issuing weekly 3,600,000 bread cards. Soldiers returning from the front are met at the railway station and receive bread tickets good for their furlough.

One recent achievement of the German chemists has been the utilising of tar oil, extracted from burned coal, for making soap. The new process includes the treatment of crude coal oil with potash, the finished product yielding excellent soft, hard, and powdered soaps.

The following menu is taken from the *Hackepeter* restaurant in Hamburg:

Herring with French beans, 1.40 marks.
Haddock (boiled) with mustard sauce and sauerkraut, 1.50 marks.
Haddock (fried), with green cabbage, 2 marks.
Hare ragout, with cabbage stewed in wine (free from meat card), 2.20 marks.
Roast venison with red cabbage (one-half meat card section), 2.80 marks.
Rum grog, 60 pfennigs; red wine grog, 40 pfennigs.

The price of geese is so high that it cannot be reckoned as a food for the nation at large. This is not at all surprising, of course, because, in pre-war days, the imports of geese from Russia reached the giantic total of 760,000 tons. That supply has been cut off and the local flocks are utterly unable to meet the demand. Fowls can be purchased for 4.50 marks a pound and ducks for 4.95 marks; hens for roasting are obtainable at about 5 marks a piece. Soap is scarce, in fact, hardly obtainable and clothing is an exceedingly grave problem.

The strangest materials are being used to produce covering for the poorer classes of Germany. Nettle wastage and raw nettles

are advertised, as well as woven paper for making men's clothes. Cheap costumes are made from artificial silk, and moire material and lining are used for dresses. There are many offers in the clothing trade journals to buy waste paper, from which paper yarn is made. A textile firm advertises for horse hair of all kinds, ox-tail hair, goat hair, pigs' bristles and hair, which are to be used in its factory. The lack of raw material has caused many textile mills to close down. Waste of every kind is eagerly bought, such as metal, rags, bones, rubber, iron, paper, newspapers and books, and empty sacks, packing cases, and bottles. There are numerous advertisements due to the war which point to the use of all available resources.

HOW THE BRITISH VICTORY LOAN WAS RESCUED FROM FAILURE.

Mr. Raymond Radclyffe contributes an interesting article to *The English Review*, entitled "The Lesson of the War Loan." He strongly blames Mr. McKenna for permitting himself to become merely a puppet of the bankers, under whose tutelage the credit of Great Britain was put upon a 6 per cent. basis. "He did whatever the bankers told him to do, and as it is the business of a banker to lend money it is natural that he should get the best security he can, and the highest interest." To borrow at 6 per cent., as was being done when Mr. Bonar Law became Chancellor of the Exchequer, was a very bad thing for British credit. Germany was borrowing at a shade over 5 per cent.; Australia was borrowing at 4½ per cent., and neutrals were paying considerably less than Great Britain for accommodation. No wonder, he says, the United States was astonished when it saw this; "I will go further than this, I will say that it was scared." Mr. Bonar Law called a meeting of bankers and told them that he proposed to issue a 5 per cent. loan. There were fourteen of these men present—according to Mr. Radclyffe. Ten of them declared that such a rate of interest was impossible, and assured the Chancellor that no one would subscribe to a 5 per cent. loan. The other four, however, stood by him, and in the end he had his way.

The loan made its appearance on January 10th, and "I do not think that I am betraying any confidences when I say that it went very badly indeed. I have not the figures, but I believe that during the first three weeks between £70,000,000 and £80,000,000 were subscribed. This was hopeless." Mr. Law set to work to save the situation, and called in Mr. Kennedy Jones, known in Fleet Street as "K.J." He is what the United States would call a live wire, a hustler, a shrewd man of business, and an organiser. He was an old schoolfellow of Mr. Law, and the two men trusted each other. He asked for a free hand, and Mr. Law gave it to him.

From the moment that he took charge the success of the loan was never in doubt for a moment. He organised a publicity campaign, not only in London, but in the smallest country towns. He evolved schemes whereby the workpeople could subscribe for the loan on the instalment plan. He utilised the War Savings Certificate for all it was worth. He put the whole of Great Britain through a fine sieve. Meetings were held in every village and hamlet. The War Loan became the only topic of conversation. The newspapers wrote it up day by day. Orators talked about it. Clergymen preached on it. The result was that Mr. Kennedy Jones' organisation produced ten times as much money during the short time that he was in charge as had been produced during the three weeks previous to his taking command. Also I can say that he did not spend very much more money in his successful campaign than was previously spent in the one which was so signally fruitless. Being a business man, Mr. Kennedy Jones put the right men in the right places and made them work. Most of his workers, like himself, gave their services for nothing.

A better demonstration could hardly have been given of the sometimes doubted assertion that it pays to advertise! The bankers looked on, says Mr. Radclyffe, and smiled, "but when they found that so far from the loan being a failure, which they had prophesied, it was a great success, they all threw themselves heart and soul into the movement." Had Mr. Law used greater firmness with the bankers, Mr. Radclyffe considers, he could have forced them to convert the whole of their exchequer bonds and half of their Treasury bills into the new loan. This would have been better for the country, but apparently was not done.

The bankers no doubt think that with an appreciable block of short-dated securities in their possession they will be able to make their own terms when further Treasuries have to be placed. This is exactly

where the bankers are completely wrong. They will not be able to make better terms. They will have to reconcile themselves to the fact that they must lend on short-dated securities just whatever money the Treasury requires for the conduct of the war, and that they must lend it at 5 per cent. They will not like this, but they must succumb to the inevitable.

I do not think that the bankers realise that unless Great Britain wins this war all their bank deposits, all their securities, all their credit is so much waste-paper. We cannot win this war unless we are supported by the whole money of the nation. The bankers hold that money. The nation has shown that it is ready and willing to lend the money. It is therefore the meanest thing in the world to haggle over 1 per cent. It is preposterous. We are engaged in a fight for our very lives. Yet there are some people in the city who would measure out our life-blood.

The late campaign was of great value, for it taught the people what a war loan is, and "when another one is made it will be subscribed in half the time, and with twice the alacrity." This last appeal to the country was for what was called the Victory Loan, but Mr. Radclyffe says that it is inevitable that another loan will have to be raised some time in the autumn, presumably about October, and he urges that plans should be made now for the new issue. There are a great number of people in England yet who do not understand what a war loan is, and who have not yet put all the money they could at the service of the country. When the new loan is decided on a publicity campaign should be started.

Its terms must be made public; its advantages set out. This can be done without any difficulty. As soon as the propaganda is complete the prospectus must be issued. It must be scattered broadcast, and in every city, town, village, and hamlet a committee must be formed for the purpose of securing subscriptions. But the issue must not be kept open more than a week or ten days. It must not be allowed to get stale. The whole thing will have to be done with a rush. Everybody will in this way be forced to over-subscribe. No one is any the worse for an over-subscription. Extravagance in applying for national loans spells economy in living. We want all the economy we can get, therefore we must get all the over-applications we can.

WHO WILL COMMAND THE SEA?

Mr. E. T. Good, writing in *The Financial Review of Reviews* on the failure of British shipping, considers that it is quite probable that after the war is over the British mercantile marine will no longer be supreme. He regards America as the chief rival, but Norway, Japan and Germany will also be in the race. Owing to the high freights which are being earned by neutral shipping generally, earnings which are not subjected to British war taxation, neutral companies are doing far better financially than their British competitors, but against this temporary advantage it may be noted, says Mr. Good, that the additions which are being made to their merchant fleets involve inflated capitalisation. For example, a cargo steamer of 8800 tons dead weight has just recently cost Japan £42 per ton. Ships in Japan are five times their pre-war price. He refers to the fact that the Panama Canal opens a new chapter in the annals of shipping, and says:—

The Americans may again become our chief rivals in shipping and shipbuilding, as they were in the first half of the nineteenth century. We hold certain natural and economic advantages over the United States as builders and operators of ships, as we do over Germany; but if, on the one hand, the American trades are to be specially fostered by the Government, whilst, on the other hand, ours are to be unduly taxed by the State, and unreasonably hampered by old trade union restrictions, then our supremacy, alike in ships, and the capacity to build ships, may be lost.

He sketches the rise and fall of American shipping during the last century, and then says that when the present war broke out the tonnage of the United States shipping engaged in foreign trade was only 1,000,000 tons, against a British tonnage of 18,000,000, and a German tonnage of 5,500,000.

Since then just about another 1,000,000 tons has been added by purchase from other countries under the terms of the Ship Registry Act, which permits the transference to American ownership and registry of vessels built abroad, whilst another 500,000 tons of new shipping has been launched by United States builders and put under the American flag. Roughly, the United States merchant marine has been increased by 150 per cent. since August, 1914. Another million tons is in course of construction in American yards on home account.

That the Americans are confident that there is a great future for their shipping is

evidenced by the large amount of new capital that is being invested in ships and ship building yards in the United States.

It is thought that our extra war taxation, together with the demands of our trade unionists, will so enhance our building and operating costs that they will approach, if not equal, those of America, and that the Federal Government will grant sufficient subsidisation, or protection, to render even ocean shipping a profitable business for United States capital. The New York "Annalist," in summing up the possibilities of future competition, declares that "it is probable that for many years to come the cost of labour and materials in the United Kingdom and Germany will be as high as in the United States, and that the start which American yards have obtained, thanks to the war, will enable them to compete successfully."

Regarding German competition, he recalls that in the last thirty years before the war the tonnage of German ocean steam shipping was increased from 500,000 tons, mostly built in Britain, to 5,500,000 tons, almost entirely built in Germany. The German Government, he says, carefully fostered the industry, and German trade syndicates gave generous support. British shipping had been left unaided to meet this competition. Will it remain unhelped in the future?

It is reported that the Hamburg-American line has no less than 350,000 tons new shipping under construction, that the Nordeutscher-Lloyd has 250,000 tons building, whilst most of the other German lines are making large additions to their fleets.

In a lecture given at the German Institute of Nautical Science on December 9, Captain C. Schrotter, of Hamburg, stated that since the beginning of the war 152 German ships, with a tonnage of 452,000 tons, had been destroyed; 267 ships, with a total cargo room of 807,000 tons had been retained by the enemy; 621 vessels, with a tonnage of 2,341,000 tons were lying interned abroad; and 490 steamers, of 2,410,000 tons, were still at home. He figured it out that of Germany's total merchant steam tonnage, 7.1 per cent. was finally and irremediably lost; 14.1 per cent. was in the hands of the enemy and 43 per cent. in neutral harbours.

He fears that in the larger issues of peace making the real interests of British shipping may be to some extent neglected. Although he thinks that "a big proportion of the German merchant marine may be sequested as a compensation for the shipping she has so wantonly destroyed, on the other hand indemnification only may be demanded, in which case practically the whole of our enemy's marine would be left free to resume business."

FRENCH VIEW OF THE SUBMARINE MENACE.

M. Meunier Surcouf, Member of Parliament and member of the Naval Committee, contributes an interesting article to *La Revue* upon the submarine war. He points out that, as time passes, the Germans must steadily get into a condition, owing to lack of food, which will break down their ability to resist our armies, but, says he, we have to frankly confess that the maritime supremacy which makes possible our starvation blockade, is gravely endangered by the energetic and intense underwater campaign now being carried on by the enemy. Their daring, he says, has increased from day to day, since August, 1914, and it is the Allies who, by their lack of foresight, their nonchalance, and their indecision, are responsible for this. They thought no more of the submarine than they thought of the use of heavy artillery on land!

He shows how the Germans, knowing that they could not possibly make any impression upon the united fleets of the Allies, reinforced after several months by the ships of Italy, were obliged to concentrate on submarines, but so little was known concerning this weapon that they began their early attacks with considerable timidity. On our side, he says, we were not prepared for a war against merchantmen, and did not at first grasp its extreme significance. We did not foresee the possibility of its rapid and progressive development. Consequently the earlier attacks by the submarines met with no resistance. The French early in 1915 armed trawlers to convey ships across the Channel, which sea was also closed by means of steel nets. Nevertheless, "if we take the sinkings from October, 1914, to October, 1915, we cannot but be appalled by their steady increase."

In September, 1915, it was decided to arm French merchantmen, but at first only mail boats and transports were given guns. We came but slowly out of our inertia. Meantime the peril was constantly increasing. The Germans were always building and improving, and soon had four times as

many submarines as when the war began. They increased in size from 300 tons to 1800, and naturally were full of improvements. Their crews were selected, says M. Surcouf, with great care. They were offered many advantages, money, honours, and the like. The captains were taken indiscriminately from the navy and from the merchant marine, according to their merit and their knowledge of the waters in which they had to operate. Their daring increased with the poverty of our defence, and the lack of any counter-attack. In the Mediterranean many transports were passing to and fro between Africa and France and the Levant, and it was not long before the redoubtable under-water adversary began to appear in that inland sea, and as in northern waters, the rapid increase of disasters was alarming. There was no organisation, he points out, in the Mediterranean whatever. It all had to be improvised, and as soon as one system of defence was installed it became obsolete owing to the new methods employed by the enemy. This was in 1915, in which year he says the Germans were producing from one or two submarines every week. His comment on the position to-day is:—

The peril is great, and it would be foolish to dissimulate it. There is no doubt whatever that even a partial interruption in the arrival of foodstuffs or material which is being required in increasing quantities for the manufacture of cannon and guns, would be of a nature to throw us into the very greatest embarrassment.

He asserts positively, however, that there is no danger of that, because it is possible to struggle against the submarine, but it must be done with vigour and without regard to previous fixed ideas. We have to remember that, in order to defend ourselves, we must attack. He admits, however, that, for the moment, there is no single means of combating submarines successfully. It is by a combination of methods only that it is possible to guard ourselves against this redoubtable enemy. The best method of all is to arm merchantmen, but these vessels must carry guns which are sufficiently powerful to force a submarine to dive. No defensive plans, however, will overcome the submarine unless they are combined with offensive efforts on the part of the Allies' navies. First of all, he says, we must seek out and destroy the bases where these ships obtain supplies and effect repairs. This has not been done this far. It is doubtful even now if it is possible to destroy them. It is a matter for the military and naval leaders to decide, "whether the value of such destruction would exceed the heavy sacrifice which would be necessary to achieve it."

He points out, what perhaps is seldom thought of, namely, that a submarine cannot remain indefinitely under the water, but is obliged to run on the surface in order to charge the accumulators which drive it when submerged. Its under-water range is limited, so he says, to from seventy to eighty miles at a stretch, and he considers that it should be possible to so fill the waters where submarines operate with small craft as to make certain that when one came to the surface it would be immediately spotted. That would, he admits, make it necessary to have an enormous number of small ships, but we must work along the lines of getting these under-water craft when they come to the surface, to manufacture power to work beneath the waves.

We know, of course, says M. Surcouf, that a certain number of enemy submarines have been destroyed, but few, after all, compared with the number of those which have been built, and are being finished in Germany. It is almost always by chance that we have thus far been able to destroy an enemy submarine at sea. It is possible that there may be further increase in the disasters which our fleets and those of neutrals will experience owing to the increasing efforts made by the Germans' under-water craft. Before long these losses may be exceedingly serious, and may gravely hamper our operations. It is necessary to see, whatever else happens, that there is no permanent interruption in sea communications. There should be perhaps some other method of transporting troops and supplies between France and England than that at present adopted.

Why, says M. Surcouf, should not great submersibles be constructed which could carry men, and food, and munitions across the Channel without any danger from submarines? After expressing his conviction that before long we will have partially purged the ocean of these dangerous craft, and have seriously diminished the menace, he goes on to warn his readers against over confidence. "Take care," he says, "the submarine war has completely upset all old ideas and doctrines, all the old traditions of the Navy. We have got to act, and act quickly. What value have the formidable fleets of battleships and

cruisers, these powerful floating fortresses, which up to now have dominated the ocean, for us? They are to-day unused. The submarine and the danger of the escape of enemy ships keep them in harbour. If we allow this under-water menace to continually grow, we will arrive at a time when maritime history will be reversed, and 'isolated pirates will some day defeat regular fleets.'"

WHY THIS POLICY OF ROSE WATER?

Austin Harrison can at any rate point to the consistent manner in which he has warned Great Britain about the strength of Germany. From the very beginning of the war he asserted that we were up against a terribly powerful enemy, and, if we would win, we must copy them and their methods, and stop pretending that victory was certain. In an article in his magazine, *The English Review*, entitled "On the Eve," he has some exceedingly pertinent things to say concerning the situation as it is to-day. First of all he has some very biting comments on Mr. Lloyd George's administration, the Millionaire Government, as it is nick-named to-day. There is, he says, a scandalous waste of money going on, "which may be plutocratic, but certainly is not business, for the disease threatens to spread until every Minister has a suite of hotels."

Contrast this orgy of expenditure with Paris. There, not a hotel has been seized. The Ministry of Munitions, extraordinarily efficient, is housed in one small building—an unfinished branch of Claridge's—and in the same edifice is housed the department of the "Main d'oeuvre," or office for recalling skilled men from the army, which contains some million exact dossiers of workers, so that in a few minutes they can place their hands on any skilled worker needed and get him back in seven days—all this in one room within the Ministry where the untiring professor of history, M. Thomas, now in charge of munitions, keeps in night and day touch with his staff, many of whom also are professors, to the complete elimination of red tape and waste. In Paris the Air Ministry is a house, here it spreadeagles into vast hotels with legions of women clerks. What are they all doing? Burning coal, we know. But if this is Mr. George's idea of a Bureaucracy, the sooner Democracy interferes the better. I have calculated that for every building used by the French Ministry we have three or four, and that for every Frenchman employed in any department we employ twenty-seven, and if the total number of women are included the ratio is something like thirty-six—the expense working out disproportionately higher.

The truth is that food is England's question to-day, and, says Mr. Harrison, that if the reports are true that Mr. Prothero is overawed by Lord Devonport, who has irritated the farmers by fixing maximum prices, and that in turn the joint efforts of these two are neutralised by the efforts made in other quarters to fill the army, we shall, if we do not take immediate and wise steps, go quite distressingly short in the month of May, which is when rumour wills it that in which Germany hauls down the flag from sheer starvation.

The question is: Which crop will prove good? Our crop, from want of intelligent anticipation, or the crop of rumours which promise us peace in the spring on the ground of German malnutrition? I hope people who read this "Review," and consequently know that our endeavour is not to foster delusions but help win the war, will devote their energies to the food question here and leave the Germans to the soldiers. I have said repeatedly in these pages that the enemy will not be forced to his knees through starvation, and that it is weakness to count on such weakness. But our problem is demonstrable. We have neglected to take precautions. Almost whatever happens our food production must be less this year than it was last year. We have starved the farmer of hands, now we must use soldiers for the land. It would seem the only way. The February frost has not assisted matters. I hear ugly reports from Ireland, too, which agriculturally has been grossly neglected all this time instead of being intensely nursed. With the falling food production all the world over, and the new submarine campaign plus our own crass negligence, food is going to be a serious question, and if Mr. George is bent on retaining himself in his hotels he will be well advised to say some plain words, not in Welsh, to the responsible parties concerned and see that they are not obstructed.

The public believe, he says, that this spring the war will be decided, and that certainly by midsummer the end will come, and so general is this belief that it is prepared to let the Government do exactly what it pleases, provided that goal is reached. We all passionately hope that this will be the case, but militarily that is a scientifically wrong attitude, and an extremely unwise policy for the Government. Germany, he considers, is to-day at the height of her military power, with her strategical lines sensibly improved on those of last year, owing to the disappearance of Roumania, which permitted extensive reduction in the lines of the German eastern defence. From the East he says we will

be wise not to count on decisive assistance. Referring to Sir Douglas Haig's recent remarkable manifesto, which warned us clearly not to expect that peace would necessarily follow a decision in the field this year, he says that it was addressed to the back and not to the front. He means us to face the war behind as the soldiers face it out there, with a single and implacable determination, otherwise it was "an astonishing utterance and not a little un-English."

Patriotism in Germany is a religion before which all theory, such as class social democracy, pales into insignificance—as we have seen. Unimaginative as a people, with the principles of discipline and national service drilled into their very bones, the Germans know that they are now fighting for hegemony or disruption, for national life or nothing; and I find that all competent observers are agreed that they will fight to the death for these things and that only superior violence will defeat them. If we are determined to impose our terms upon them, then we, too, must make up our minds to continue the struggle through the winter, if needs be, as clearly foreshadowed in Sir Douglas Haig's message. Such is the only true way to face the future. Such is the only way to look forward to the stupendous events which confront us this summer.

The Germans evidently realise since their statement of peace terms and the no-compromise attitude which every Allied Government has adopted, that they are indeed fighting for their very existence, and that being so, they will continue fighting either until the Allies offer terms which leave Germany pretty much as it was before the war started, or until they are utterly crushed in the field. Commenting on the optimistic forecasts concerning the early termination of the struggle, Mr. Harrison says :—

Of what use, then, this policy of rose water, this hugging of expectations based on demonstrably false premises? It is a dangerous position for this Government to adopt, composed, as it is, of no permanent associations, without a party, floating, as it were, on the irresponsibility of an utterly discredited Parliament, itself virtually at the mercy of its own opportunism. Why democracy should not know what it is doing, I cannot understand. It is the spirit of Britain, which has been the crowning glory of this war. In reality there is not the smallest need for any secrecy, whether about the submarine menace or otherwise. The policy which now asks us all to shut our eyes and applaud whatever the Hotel Government chooses to do, or not to do, is a negative policy which must end in disillusion and may land the Government in a crisis of a catastrophic nature to the country. We stand absolutely before the greatest crisis in our history, of which the decision must fall this summer. Yet at this hour we are handled like a pack of children, and instead of going to the country and engaging its support manfully, Mr. George conducts his phantom Government like a Tetrarch, and we know nothing and are not supposed to question anything. And that, too, is a situation which this summer will decide.

There are plenty of people who consider that the German retirement in the West and the pushing back of their lines which has been going on during the last few weeks spell victory. But, says Mr. Harrison, we have to remember that no tactical victory or victories will suffice to win the war.

Beating back the line here and there, even pressing it back some dozen miles, would not constitute a decision, and even if the Germans are forced back to the very powerful Meuse line, that also need not constitute a military decision, provided the enemy armies remained more or less intact, able to fight a strategic retreat, for the good reason, as has been explained over and over again, that the venue of German victory lies in the south-east, the Western theatre having for them the character chiefly of a retaining or battle-ground to be held or vacated according to military exigency. Thus only whole work will achieve our purpose. There are other contingencies, of course, foremost among which is America, but strictly militarily, the condition we ought to prepare ourselves to face in the event of a partial or non-positive result is the will to continue through.

He wrote before America had declared war, but points out that even if she did so she would not be in a position to intervene appreciably this spring, when either a negative or a positive military result must be reached. So, "for the next six absolutely decisive months she may be dismissed as a military asset." Moreover, he says, America will hold herself at liberty to make peace independent of the *Entente*.

The military situation therefore rests with us, and I say deliberately that if we intend to obtain the terms enunciated by Mr. Lloyd George, then the idea popularly held and disseminated that the German strength will be finally broken this summer may prove a delusion for which the civilian population is not prepared, the result of which may throw this Government out of power and lead to the diplomatists' table. All through we have refused to face facts; we still refuse to face facts, even to consider them. Now the fact before us to-day is the cast of the German Empire's full strength, representing literally all that the men and women of nearly seventy millions of people can put up in a single effort with the knowledge that this is the supreme trial. Mr. Bonar Law said only the other day that war could not go on "indefinitely." It is true. What we loosely call a war of attrition really means European ex-

haustion or ruin, and it would hit both and all sides. This war will be decided militarily in France this year.

He deplores the fact that although, when Mr. Lloyd George came into power, he said he wanted the people to be told the truth, precisely the opposite has taken place. Nothing now can alter the facts as they will emerge from the battlefield this summer yet still we go on deceiving ourselves.

WHAT CANADA HAS DONE.

A most interesting article on Canada and the War is contributed to *The World's Work*, by Bertrand J. Hendrick. He wrote before the United States declared war on Germany, and holds the great Dominion up to his American readers as an example of what their country ought to do should war come. He says that the world struggle came to Canada as an overwhelming surprise, and found the Dominion even less prepared for war than the United States. Her economic condition was deplorable; the Federal Government itself had exceeded its credit for construction of internal improvements, many of them unwarranted. Business conditions were depressed and unemployment was widespread.

The experience of Canada is especially valuable to the United States, because, in all the essentials of political and social life, the two countries are the same. Both nations are democracies and both draw their fundamental institutions from the same source. Both represent the same mixture of people, with the great exception, of course, that the United States has no great compact Latin element, making up one-third of its population, speaking what to the majority is a foreign tongue, tenaciously resisting assimilation, and clinging generation after generation to the civilisation of two centuries ago. In their recent development, however, Canada and the United States have followed parallel lines. The history of immigration to Canada has been practically identical with that to the United States. Canada has a large quota of immigrants from the British Isles, as we have, and she has also her Germans, her Galicians, her Hungarians, her Italians, her Eastern Europeans, and even her Orientals. At present, however, Canada's Germans have the greatest interest for the United States.

The Americans, especially just before plunging into the conflict, were gravely concerned as to what the "hyphenates" would do. On this point, says Mr. Hendrick, much can be learned from Canada. For there are German-Canadians, just as there are German-Americans. He estimates that there are 10,000,000 people in the United States who trace their racial origin more or less directly to Germany. That is roughly 10 per cent. of the total population. Canada has roughly 400,000 Germans, or about $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

And German immigration has followed practically the same historic course in both countries. The bulk of the German population, in the United States as well as in Canada, represents the influx of the years preceding 1870. These Germans came mainly from the southern parts of Germany; they were in many cases revolutionists and political refugees, or at least peace-loving Germans who left the Fatherland to escape the Prussianism that is now flaunting the world. In Western Ontario there is a peninsula formed by Lake Erie, Lake Huron, and Georgian Bay; herein is situated Canada's Wisconsin—an area that contains a large German agricultural population, a considerable part of which has lived here for more than one generation. The very names of its towns—Berlin, Baden, New Hamburg, Guelph—indicate its origin. Berlin, the largest of these places, with a population of 15,000, of which 10,000 are German, is Canada's Milwaukee. The more recent German immigrants, of whom there are about 30,000, have settled, for the most part, in the recently opened Western provinces—Alberta, Saskatchewan, and British Columbia.

If Canada's experience with these German-Canadians is any guide, says he, then the United States have little to fear from its Germanic elements. Berlin, for several months, made the largest *per capita* contribution in Canada to the patriotic fund.

The Turn-Vereins and the Schuetzenbunds of German-Canadians have not turned out to be secret military organisations. Every singing society has not shown itself to be merely a branch office of the Pan-German League. In the early days reports were current that all the cellars in the German colony of Toronto were filled with German reservists fully equipped for war, and that a million Germans had gathered in Buffalo for an invasion of Canada—but these stories faded on investigation. If the German-Canadians have been busy building artillery emplacements at advantageous points near the large cities, time has not yet revealed them.

Not many have enlisted in the Canadian forces, but this is hardly a fair test, since German recruits were emphatically unwelcome. There were a few trouble-makers, but very few, and they have been interned.

About 7000 subjects of the Kaiser and Austria have lived in these internment camps; a majority, however, have been confined more from pity than from any other motive, as they were out of work, penniless, and destitute. In recent months several of

these camps have been closed and the prisoners set free, so that now only about 3000 subjects of the Central Empires are living in duress. For all practical purposes German-Canadians have given no trouble.

He touches on the real problem of Canada, that of the French-Canadians, and gives various reasons why these people have not enlisted anything like as freely as the British-Canadians. Those who have gone to France have fought with the utmost heroism, but for some reason the French-Canadian does not regard this struggle as much concern of his. He is a peaceful creature, to whom the war is so remote that it makes little impression on his imagination.

He does not read blue books or white papers, European diplomacy of the last twenty-five years concerns him little, and his mind cannot spring far enough ahead to associate the triumph of England with the ultimate security of his own beloved Canada. If Hindenburg were pounding at the gates of Quebec, there is little question that the French-Canadian would shoulder his rifle; but Hindenburg in the Carpathians or the Russian morasses does not strike him as anything that threatens his own parish. Again, the French-Canadian marries when very young, and has an astonishingly large family—twelve and fifteen children being not uncommon. Under any proper system of military service he would be among the last to be called to the colours.

Mr. Hendrick points out that if the United States raised as many men in proportion as Canada has done the following results would be obtained :—

We should enlist roughly 5,000,000 men, send overseas 3,640,000, of whom 2,275,000 would have already seen service at the front. We should constantly keep in the fighting line fifty-two divisions, or about 1,000,000 soldiers. Our casualties would have reached, up to date, 910,000, and nearly 200,000 Americans would have sacrificed their lives. Certainly, if the United States could show any such record as this, we should probably think that we had made a solid contribution to the cause of justice and civilisation. And these figures represent precisely what Canada has done.

However, he condemns the voluntary system, and mentions that Canadians have strongly recommended the United States to immediately adopt conscription should America become involved in the war. That advice has, we know, been followed. But Canada's greatest triumph, he says, is in the financial support she has brought to the war. Not only has she financed herself, she has actually lent Great Britain £50,000,000. The war has already cost her about £100,000,000, and she is spending money at the rate of £200,000 a day. He has a good deal to say concerning the difficulties with regard to different equipment and different training of officers, which resulted in some trouble when the Canadian forces reached England and France.

We have received a little pamphlet-poem, entitled "To God": from the Weary Nations (Australasian Authors' Agency; price 1s.), which bears "Furnley Maurice" as the author's name. Most people are aware that this is the pen-name of Mr. Frank Wilmot, who is known throughout Australasia as one of our best poets and also as an anonymous prose writer. It is dedicated to "Israel Zangwill, Romain Rolland and the Martyred Minority," and it is really somewhat remarkable, that it has not been censored out of existence itself. We recommend it to our readers with the following quotation :—

All men have sinned, but God made all men brave.
We ask forgiveness by this deep choked grave,
And a little time, a little time to live,
A little time to live and forget in the world.
The years of swords and horrors we repent.
Forget the doom and shrieking curses hurled
On foes that lie in death magnificent.
O God, men did not know men were so brave
Till foes stood silent by the deep choked grave.

It ends with the words :—

We thought to snatch the sacred flame from Thee—
Look on our soul's scorched breast, our withered wings,
And pity, Lord, our poor humanity!

Another remarkable volume from the same publishers (2s.) is a bundle of stories, articles, essays and even a dramatic piece, together with some verses, printed in a book called "'Gator's Euchre," by A. L. Brewer. They betray a power of writing which is not usual in Australian youth, and would arrest attention without any romance about its author. A. L. Brewer has only just reached man's estate, and is one of the Anzacs. He took part in the first landing at Gallipoli, and, within 48 hours, was blown up and buried, with a battered left hand, blinded for three months in the right eye, and the left eye weakened, and scarred by other wounds.

NOTABLE BOOKS.

WAR AND THE FUTURE.

Mr. H. G. Wells, after visiting the Italian and French fronts, wrote a book entitled "War and the Future" (Cassell and Co., 6s. net.). It is a most interesting compilation, full of typically Wellsian touches, and the writer contrives to convey to his readers the subtle manner in which certain things he saw and heard caused him to believe that this would be the last of all wars. He states that he "hates soldiering, travels badly, speaks French and Italian with incredible atrocity, and is an extreme pacifist." Yet he took the journey, and is glad that he took it. He is, he says, against the man who first takes up the weapon.

I do not merely want to stop this war, I want to nail down war in its coffin. Modern war is intolerable. I have always hated it, and now that I have been seeing it, sometimes quite closely for a few months, I hate it more than ever. I never imagined one quarter of its waste and boredom, its futility, its desolation. It is merely a destructive and dispersive, instead of a constructive and cumulative industrialism. It is a gigantic, dusty, muddy, weedy, silliness. It is the plain duty of every man to give his life and all that he has if by so doing he may help to end it. . . . The war has failed to produce any great and imposing personalities. . . . It is a drama without a hero. . . . The great man of this war is the common man. . . . If I had to pick out a single figure to stand for the finest quality of the Allies' war, I think I should choose the figure of General Joffre. He is something new in history. He is leadership without vulgar ambition.

Mr. Wells saw Marshal Joffre and Generals Pellé and Castlenau, although he did not wish to see them, having a dread of "personages."

They do not meet you, they pose at you enormously. I had but recently had an encounter with an important colonial statesman, who was being advertised like a soap as the coming saviour of England. I was curious to meet him. I wanted to talk to him about all sorts of things that would have been profoundly interesting. For instance, his impressions of the Anglican bishops. But I met a hoarding, I met a thing like a mask utterly surrounded by touts, that was dully trying, as we say in London, to "come it," over me. He said he had heard of me; he had read "Kipps." I intimated that though I had written "Kipps" I had continued to exist, but he did not see the point of that. I said certain things to him about the difference in complexity between political life in Great Britain and in the Colonies that he was manifestly totally incapable of understanding. But one could as soon have talked with one of the statesmen at Mme. Tussaud's, an antiquated figure.

Neither Joffre nor his colleagues spoke of the Germans with either hatred or humanity. "Germany for them is manifestly merely an objectionable thing. It is not a nation, not a people, but a nuisance." Mr. Wells appears to be deeply impressed with Joffre. He saw the King of Italy and found that he had the same detachment from the war as the French generals. He spoke of it as one might speak of an inundation, and of its difficulties and perplexities. "Here on the Adriatic side there were political entanglements that by comparison made our Western after-the-war problems plain sailing." He found in the trenches the same attitude towards the war as that shown by Joffre and the King of Italy. Here was trouble that Germany had brought upon us, and here was our task before us that had to be done—we had to see it through.

Mr. Wells has some very trenchant things to say concerning the Anglican and Catholic Churches, though he pays a warm tribute to the clergy of France, who are "men among men, not merely just young officers with peculiar collars." For fifty years to come England and France must play a cen-

tral part in the World's League for the preservation of peace, and they dare not quarrel. The Frenchman finds it very difficult to understand his British colleague, and the British frankly make no attempt to understand the French.

The French think that we economise in brains and waste blood. . . . They are shocked at the way in which obviously incompetent or inefficient men of the old army class are retained in their positions even after serious failures, and they were profoundly moved by the bad staff work and needlessly heavy losses of our opening attacks in July, 1916. . . . The British officers excuse themselves because they plead they are still amateurs. That is no reason, says the Frenchman, why they should be amateurish.

Mr. Wells suggested to General Castlenau that French officers should be sent to our headquarters in a tutorial capacity, but that astute leader would not be drawn. "There is only one way to learn war," he said, "that is to make war." The most interesting chapter of all is the last, which deals with the ending of the war. "The soldiers on both sides," he says, "would welcome peace in any form. "Never in the whole history of the world has a war been so universally unpopular as this war." Mr. Wells, having falsely prophesied in the early days of the struggle, will not venture again, but considers that "the war, universally detested, may yet go on into 1918 or 1919. Food riots, famine and general disorganisation will come before 1920 if it does."

The Allies have a winning game before them, but they seem unable to discover and promote the military genius needed to harvest an unquestionable victory. . . . Victory, complete and dramatic, may be too dearly bought. We need not triumphs out of this war but the peace of the world. . . . None of the combatants expected such a war as this. The consequence is that the world at large has no idea how to get out of it. The war may stay with us like a schoolboy caller, because it does not know how to go. . . . There is the clearest evidence that nearly everyone is anxious to get out of the war now. Nobody at all, except perhaps a few people who may be called to account and a handful of greedy profit seekers, wants to keep it going. Quietly, perhaps, and unobtrusively everyone at large is now trying to find the way out of the war, and I am convinced that the same is the case in Germany.

He discusses the various peace programmes, and says it is hard to see how they can be modified on either side if the war is to be decided only between the belligerents and by standards of national interest only, without referring to any other considerations. "But this thought that possibly there may be a side way out, a sort of turning over of the present endless, hapless game into a new and different and manageable game through the introduction of some external factor, creeps and spreads, as I find it creeping and spreading." He wrote before America came into the war, and it is to America that he points, in this chapter, as the only power that could bring the war to an end, could "insist upon something better than a new diplomatic patchwork, and so obviate the later completer Armageddon." The longer, he says, open peace discussion goes on before the door is closed on the secret peace Congress the better for mankind.

Mr. Wells then outlines what he considers should be done to secure permanent and lasting peace. Unfortunately space does not permit us to give quotations from his original, but nevertheless sensible suggestions. But the general trend of his arguments is conveyed in the following sentence: "What all the neutrals want, what every rational and far-sighted man in the belligerent countries wants, what the common sense of the whole world demands is neither the ascendency of Germany nor the ascendency of Great Britain, nor the ascendency of any State or people or interest in the shipping of the world." Economic fighting, he says, must be avoided at all costs. An international commission must have control over the tariffs of the world. The manufacture of all war munitions must be taken over by the great industrial States. There must be free access for everyone to natural products, to coal and mineral products, free shipping, no discriminating tariffs, and the recognition by a tribunal of the principle of common welfare in trade matters. "Any peace which does not provide for these things will be merely the laying down of the sword in order to take up the cudgels."

FIXING FOOD PRICES.

So much has been said about the need for fixing food prices in all the countries affected by the war, and so very little is really known about the matter, that Mr. H. L. Wilkinson's book, "State Regulation of Prices in Australia" (Melville and

Mullen. 7/6). is indeed welcome. It is a treatise on price fixing and state socialism. and gives detailed particulars of legislation which has been introduced in Australia. the results of price fixing in this country, and in New Zealand. It touches on the wheat pool, restrictions on imports, State insurance and banking, and many other matters, all closely related to the question of price fixing. It is, however, to Mr. Wilkinson's conclusions that one naturally turns. He is one of the few men who have studied the question carefully and rationally, and his deductions are, therefore, of considerable value.

He is strongly opposed to any attempt to fix prices, "when both supply and demand are elastic and there is no monoply control." He points out that if supply cannot be increased because of an absolute shortage, no increase in selling price can increase the quantity available for consumption so long as the conditions causing that shortage remain. In these circumstances there should be at any rate temporary fixation in prices; State interference would be in the nature of an arbitration, trying to prevent one section of the community (which happened to have stocks of the commodity of which there is a shortage) making unreasonable profit at the expense of another section of the community, but with the fixation of prices must go regulated distribution. It would be quite useless to merely fix a certain maximum selling price and do no more. For in such circumstances trade would become a matter of first come first served for any supply that happened to be forthcoming at the fixed price, and those buyers who presented themselves after the supplies were absorbed would necessarily have to go without.

A broad generalisation can now be arrived at in regard to the application of a policy of directly fixing prices of commodities. In times of shortage and when supply is inelastic, or in any case of monopoly control of supply either as the result of combination of, or agreement between, holders of supply, then, for a government to fix a price, and to control the distribution of supply are both desirable and thoroughly workable. When, however, supply is elastic and will immediately respond to variation in price, and when there is no monopoly control, then, to fix prices is both unnecessary from the point of view of consumers, and will have exactly the reverse of the desired effect. And what is said in regard to supply is equally true in regard to demand. If there are monopoly conditions in the control of buying, or the demand is inelastic, then for the government to regulate the trade is efficacious, and desirable, not only for the protection of producers, but ultimately for the benefit of the community as a whole. But, if buying is competitive, and demand is elastic, then for the State to take action in the direction of fixing minimum prices is likely to do far more harm than good.

One of the principal difficulties in all attempts to fix maximum prices is caused by holders of supplies refusing to sell at the prices fixed. To enforce the requirement to sell in the open market at fixed price is a simple matter where supplies are monopolised, but it is utterly impossible when supplies are in the hands of a great many independent and competitive owners. Thus the logical conclusion of attempts to fix prices at a level lower than that determined by supply and demand, and doing nothing more is a failure to secure supply. That, of course, is even more serious and deterimental to consumers than the excessively high prices which might otherwise have obtained. He points out that one practical advantage of having laws and tribunals for the purpose of fixing maximum prices is that they allay panic buying and holding of supply. Consumers will not buy in anticipation of very high prices, and holders will not retain stock for a large rise in prices. He concludes:—

In regard to the efficacy of directly fixing prices in Australia, there has undoubtedly been a considerable change in public opinon. When the legislation was first proposed, and the price-fixing tribunals began their operations, only the ultra-conservative section of the Australian population opposed price-fixing or were openly doubtful of its efficacy. After some two years of the operation of the policy, it has become generally recognised that, although fixing maximum rates may keep prices down for the time being, it has not, to any appreciable extent at any rate, prevented a very large increase in the cost of living throughout the Commonwealth. The more strenuous advocates of the policy point to certain conspicuous successes, and put its apparent failure in other cases down to the incapacity or want of energy on the part of the price-fixing tribunals or the governments, but the mass of the people have become very sceptical as to the policy being of much advantage to them in the long run. A dispassionate examination of the facts will, however, disclose that Australian experience proves that when the supply of a commodity is short and at the same time cannot be replenished, or when the price is already fixed as a result of monopoly control, then, and then only, can the policy of fixing maximum prices be effective and advantageous.

TOPICS OF THE DAY.

I.—ELECTORAL REFORM IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Last January the conference which had been considering the question of electoral reform at home presented its report. Its recommendations, if carried out, will effect changes of the very first importance. Very little has been said about the findings of this conference in this country, but it is well worth our while examining them, because here, too, there has been much talk of the need for electoral reform, and one of the pledges given by the majority of Nationalist candidates was to introduce proportional representation, which principle has been adopted in the report of this conference at home, over which the Speaker presided.

Although England has been held up as the most democratic country in the world, it is nevertheless true that great numbers of men and millions of women have no voice whatever in the Government of the country, that is to say, they are not, under the present system, able to register their votes when there is a general election. If the Speaker's recommendations be adopted, it is estimated that the electorate will be increased from 8,000,000 to 11,000,000, excluding women altogether. Apparently, therefore, at the present moment 3,000,000 men in the United Kingdom are disfranchised, have never been able to vote. The recommendations of this conference, which consisted of twenty-six members, drawn from all parties in the House, dealt with the following subjects:—

1. Registration of electors.
2. Reform of the franchise.
3. Redistribution of seats.
4. University representation.
5. Method and costs of election.
6. The Local Government register.
7. Soldiers and sailors.
8. Woman suffrage.
9. Miscellaneous.

It is suggested that the qualifying period for registration shall be reduced to six months. At present an elector has to reside for a year in a constituency before he is entitled to vote, and he must also be a ratepayer. The conference recommends that simple residence should qualify all adult male inmates of a household. At present where grown-up sons live with a father at home, the father, as ratepayer, is alone placed on the register. The sons might or might not become electors through the difficult door of the lodger's vote. The existing system, it is estimated, involves an expenditure of £850,000 per annum, in keeping the Parliamentary voting lists up to date. The recommended scheme would be far less costly and, as already mentioned, would give three million adult males a vote which they do not now possess.

There have always been in Great Britain gross inequalities in the sizes of the constituencies. Romford, for instance, with 300,000 inhabitants, elects one member to Parliament, and so does Durham City, with a population of but 15,000. The report suggests 70,000 as the average population which each member of Parliament should represent. This will, of course, mean great changes. Wales has a population of 2,000,000, more than half living in the single county of Glanmorganshire. Under the new system the principality would be entitled to 30 members—as at present—but many district boroughs, amongst others Carnarvon, which is Mr. Lloyd George's constituency, would be merged in county divisions. In Scotland no less than sixteen constituencies have fewer than 50,000 inhabitants. If the recommendations are adopted Scotland would send 68 members to Parliament. At present it sends 72. In England certain counties, Essex, Middlesex, Surrey, London, Lancashire, Yorkshire, would be given increased representation. All these contain large industrial districts. Agricultural counties would suffer a notable decrease, and no less than 28 county boroughs would lose separate representation. This means that the agricultural interests would be less powerful in Parliament than hitherto, and Labour would inevitably be strengthened. At present England sends 465 members to Parliament; under the suggested scheme it would send 487. The report makes no recommendation regarding Ireland, as it assumes that the Home Rule Act will shortly be in force.

At present the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge each send two members to Parliament. The University of London sends one, and the Universities of Edinburgh and of Glasgow send one each. The report suggests that Oxford and Cambridge shall continue to return two members each, but the electors will vote only for one candidate, thus making it possible for minori-

ties to be represented. Formerly only M.A.'s were allowed to exercise the franchise, but it is now recommended that all graduates shall have that privilege. The Universities of Durham, Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Bristol, and the University of Wales, none of which have hitherto had any representation at all, are to be grouped with London in one constituency with three members, to be elected by the single transferable vote. The four Scotch Universities are to be similarly grouped with three members similarly elected. The Universities, therefore, will send four more members to Parliament than at present.

The recommendations concerning the method and cost of elections are particularly interesting. At present it is a costly business to get into the House of Parliament, in fact, at the last general election the average expenses of candidates were over £800 each. In the largest constituency of all, Romford, the winning candidate spent £4522. At present the limit of expenditure for constituencies of 14,000 electors is £1430 in counties and £740 in boroughs. The new scale, now recommended, fixing 7d. per voter of counties and 5d. per voter of boroughs, works out at £416 and £291 respectively, in a 14,000 electorate constituency. If women voters were added to the electorates the cost would be correspondingly increased.

At present the returning officer's charges, now fixed at an extravagant scale, and paid by the candidates, will be paid by the State on a moderate scale. It is proposed to have all elections on one day, at a general election, instead of as at present having them spread over weeks. The conference had its attention drawn to what it terms a "growing and mischievous practice by which at the time of election political and other organisations incur expenditure in the furtherance of the views of particular candidates." That is to say, a Unionist or Liberal Headquarters Association spends much money in posters, advertising, etc., in doubtful constituencies, apart, altogether, from the candidate's own efforts. To bring it nearer home the Nationalist Federation and the Trades Hall at the last election spent much money with the object of electing their candidates. This practice is, in the view of the conference, a contravention of the spirit of the *Corrupt and Illegal Practices Prevention Act*, and it resolved that "any person incurring expenditure by holding public meetings or issuing advertisements or publications for the purpose of furthering the election of a candidate shall be guilty of a corrupt practice, unless such expenditure is authorised by the candidate and returned as part of his election expenses."

The conference also recommended that proportional representation should be introduced for boroughs entitled by population to three or more members, that is to say, which have 190,000 inhabitants or more. In England these boroughs include Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Hull, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Nottingham, Salford, Sheffield, West Ham, and Wolverhampton, and the larger London boroughs. It is significant to find proportional representation unanimously adopted by the Speaker's Conference, and to recall that France, just before the war, was on the eve of adopting it for her Parliamentary system.

Although the conference consisted of an equal number of Suffragists and Anti-Suffragists, amongst the latter being some very fanatical opponents of votes for women, it is significant that the conference decided, by a majority, it is said by a large majority, that some measure of woman suffrage should be conferred. Its recommendations are very moderate, and will certainly not satisfy ardent Woman-Suffragists, but here is a beginning which must lead to a more extended enfranchisement of women before long. The conference adopted the following resolution:—"Any woman on the local government register who has attained a specified age, and the wife of any man who is on that register, if she has attained that age, shall be entitled to be registered, and vote as a Parliamentary elector." Various ages were discussed, of which thirty and thirty-five received most favour.

The conference approved of the abolition of the plural voter, of whom there are at present at least 350,000. The non-resident owner drops out altogether. In future he must content himself with voting only where he is a resident or an occupier of business premises. The happy possessor of two homes or more will have to select one only in respect of which he will vote.

Other recommendations are the adoption of the postal vote, which has recently been abolished in this country, and the use of the alternative vote in contests for single member constituencies when there are more than two candidates in the field. This method is regarded as preferable to the second ballot.

CATECHISM OF THE WAR—XLII

Q.—Could you tell me just how much of the wheat consumed in Great Britain is imported?

A.—The Prime Minister told the House of Commons that between 70 and 80 per cent. of the staple cereal supply was imported every year. He said then that the existing food stocks were alarmingly low, and urged that every effort should be made to increase this year's harvest and the next. If the area under cultivation was not increased at once, he said, the nation might have to choose between diminishing its military efforts and under-feeding its population.

Q.—Is it likely that national service at home will be put on a compulsory basis?

A.—Mr. Lloyd George stated that, if the voluntary appeal failed, compulsion would be resorted to. He greatly preferred the voluntary method, as thereby "you got men ready to act, and avoided the setting up of large and complicated machinery." Further, he said, "the Government gave a pledge to the Labour Party at the commencement of its career that we should make an effort to secure the necessary recruits by voluntary means, and I say at once that I regard the goodwill and co-operation of the Labour organisations of this country as in itself a military asset. If we can get recruits I am sanguine in that respect—then I say undoubtedly the advantages outweigh the disadvantages of making a voluntary start." If, however, the voluntary method should fail, the Government would at once resort to legislation to compel service.

Q.—Do the volunteers for national service receive the same pay as the soldiers?

A.—They are to be paid at a higher rate, viz., 25/- a week, instead of 1/3 a day; but they have apparently to feed themselves out of that 25/- and to keep their families. Those who have to live away from home are allowed an additional 2/6 a day. A volunteer for national service who, when he leaves, finds it impossible to return to his old employment, or to get other employment, is to be allowed 3/6 a day, including Sunday for a period *not exceeding four weeks*. It is obviously exceedingly difficult for anyone with many dependants to take up national service on these terms.

Q.—Are soldiers being used in place of agricultural labourers in Great Britain?

A.—An arrangement was made in February between the War Office and the Board of Agriculture for placing a further supply of military labour at the service of farmers for spring cultivation. 15,000 men, now in the Home Defence forces, are apparently working for farmers already, and a further body of 15,000 is to be detached and quartered in different parts of the country, where they will work in the fields. This 30,000 is to make up for the 30,000 agricultural labourers the War Office called up early in the year.

Q.—In view of the fact that Lloyd George has so strongly emphasised the immense value of farm labourers, is it true that the War Office has called up agricultural labourers under the Compulsory Service Bill?

A.—Apparently it recently called up 30,000 men, and may at any moment call up another 30,000, making 60,000 in all. Lord Derby, the Minister of War, says that about 180,000 agriculturists have joined the forces since the beginning of the war, and, at the present moment, 300,000 men of military age are employed on or about the farms of England and Wales. From that number the War Office has been authorised to take 60,000 men who had been refused exemption by the tribunals. The War Cabinet, however, reduced this number to 30,000, and presumably no more will be taken off the land, but obviously it will be difficult for the farmers of Great Britain to produce increased crops when almost half their labourers—and these certainly the most fit—have gone to France.

Q.—Could you tell me what pension a British private gets if he is totally disabled?

A.—Under the new scheme he gets 27/6 a week, and in addition there is an allowance of 5/- a week for children, although this allowance is reduced slightly for each subsequent child.

Q.—Have you any particulars as to the number of horses the War Office purchased in the United Kingdom?

A.—The figures for 1916 show that during that year 400,000 horses had been purchased at a cost of over £20,000,000, which works out at an average of over £50 apiece.

Q.—Could you tell me the names of some of the controllers appointed by Mr. Lloyd George?

A.—There are a great number of them, and the following list is by no means complete :—

Food Controller—Lord Devonport.
Shipping Controller—Sir Joseph Maclay.
Controller of Coal Mines—Mr. Guy Calthorpe.
Controller of Canals—Sir Morris Fitz-Morris.
Controller of Aeronautical Supplies—Mr. William Weir.
Controller of Petrol Engines—Mr. Percy Martin.
Director-General of Food Production—Sir Arthur Lee, M.P.
Director-General of Agricultural Machinery—Mr. S. A. Edge.
Director General of Military Aeronautics—Lieut.-General Sir L. Henderson.
Chairman of Committee in Control of Fertilisers—Captain Bathurst, M.P.
Chairman of Committee in Control of Prisoners of War Labour—Mr. J. F. Hope, M.P.

Q.—Are these men paid?

A.—Apparently some of them are paid and some of them are not. Mr. Bonar Law recently announced that the following are not receiving any salary :—Earl Crawford (Lord Privy Seal), Sir S. H. Lever (Financial Secretary to the Treasury), Viscount Cowdray (President of the Air Board), Sir Joseph Maclay (Shipping Controller), Lord Devonport. (Food Controller), Captain Bathurst (Parliamentary Secretary of the Food Controller). The Chairman of Committee in the House of Lords also does not draw his salary.

Q.—Could you tell me how many old age pensioners there are now in England?

A.—On January 1st last there were 961,732 in all; of these 610.919 were women and 350,813 were men. Practically all these received the maximum 5/- a week, but 19.410 were only getting 4/-, 20,842 3/-, 10,382 2/-, and 5556 1/-. In England pensions are not payable until the age of seventy, and those receiving 5/- must not have means exceeding £21 a year.

Q.—Is the Ross rifle still used by the Canadian troops in France?

A.—No, although this rifle had stood pre-war tests exceedingly well, it failed wretchedly on the battlefield, and Lord French, in 1915, urged its entire withdrawal. It appears, however, to have been used up till August of last year, when the equipment of Canadian troops with the regulation British arm, the Lee-Enfield, was begun.

Q.—Is it true that the Germans have established powerful wireless stations in Mexico?

A.—It is said that there are several large German-owned radio stations on Mexican soil, capable of communicating directly with Germany. It is also said that there are strong stations owned by Germans in Columbia, a few miles from the Panama Canal, and that there is, in fact, a wireless network controlled by Germany over Central and Southern America, which enables the Germans to communicate easily with the outside world. It is announced in America that the German Bank and the German Legation of Mexico City are virtually guiding the financial and diplomatic activites of Mexico, but whether that is so or not is doubtful.

Q.—Was not M. Viviani, who is on a visit to the United States with Marshal Joffre, at one time Prime Minister of France?

A.—He was Prime Minister when the war broke out, and held that post until the reconstruction, when Mr. Briand succeeded him. In the recent reconstruction, when M. Ribot succeeded M. Briand, Viviani was given the portfolio of justice. M. Briand is not apparently in the new Government.

Q.—Can you tell me exactly how many native-born Germans and Americans of the first generation there are in the United States?

A.—General figures have been given in previous numbers. According to the census of 1910 there were the following native-born Austrians, Germans and Hungarians in the United States :—

Native Austrians	1,174,973
Native Germans	2,501,333
Native Hungarians	495,609
	4,171,915

Of native-born Americans with one or both parents born in Germany or Austria-Hungary, there were at that time in the United States :—

Americans with one or both parents born in Austria	826,635
Americans with one or both parents born in Germany	5,781,437
Americans with one or both parents born in Hungary	204,627
	6,812,699

This gives a total of native-born Germans and Austro-Hungarians and their children of the first generation of 10,984,614.

Q.—Is it true that the American prisoners on the "Yarrowdale" were not at once liberated owing to an outbreak of typhus amongst them?

A.—According to the Spanish Embassy, which made inquiries, typus fever did break out, and the men were quarantined. There were 59 Americans amongst them. They arrived in Germany on January 1st, and were released from quarantine on March 9th, when they were sent immediately to Switzerland.

Q.—Could you tell me the exact figures of the Victory Loan?

A.—Including Treasury Bills converted, and War Saving Certificates purchased during the time the loan was being taken up, it reached a total of £1,000,312,950. It is astonishing that, although almost £1,000,000,000 Treasury Bills were outstanding when the loan was issued, only £130,711,950 worth were converted. The value of the War Saving Certificates included in the loan amounted to £19,300,000. The following list gives the net wartime borrowings from August 1st, 1914, to January 20th, 1917:—

3½ per cent. Loan	£331,798,000
4½ per cent Loan	592,346,000
3 per cent. Exchequer Bonds (net)	30,571,000
5 per cent. Exchequer Bonds	334,519,000
6 per cent. Exchequer Bonds	160,831,000
War Expenditure Certificates	29,878,000
War Savings Certificates... ...	44,800,000
First American Loan	50,820,000
Net Issues of Treasury Bonds	1,002,518,000
Ways and Means Advances (net)	284,277,000
Net "Other Debt"	188,924,000
	£3,051,282,000
Deduct £160,427,623 paid to Bank of England out of proceeds of 4½ per cent. Loan	160,428,000
	£2,890,854,000

Almost all the 3½ per cent. loan was converted into the 4½ per cent. loan, making it some £900,000,000. This in turn was practically all converted into the Victory Loan. By this conversion holders obtained ¾ per cent. more on their investment without any charge, and the Government in consequence has to find some £6,750,000 more every year in interest. The above totals do not apparently include the three loans raised in America, which totalled £160,000,000, a loan of £10,000,000 obtained from Canada, and one of 100,000,000 yen from Japan. Possibly some of this is included in the item, "Other debts," particulars of which are not available.

Q.—Could you tell me how many Treasury Bills are now outstanding?

A.—There were apparently £1,002,519,000 worth of these certificates outstanding on January 20th. On March 10th there were only £445,479,000 outstanding. It would seem, therefore, that some £550,000,000 obtained from the new loan have already been used in redeeming these bills. As shown in the above list, there are in addition to these Treasury Bills some £500,000,000 worth of short-dated Exchequer Bonds also outstanding, but these, for the most part, do not fall due until 1919 or 1920.

Q.—What is the war now costing Great Britain?

A.—Mr. Bonar Law stated in the House of Commons the other day that the daily expenditure had actually reached the huge total of £7,450,000. When he made his statement, in March last, he reckoned that the total cost was £7,260,000. That is to say, in little over a month the daily cost has increased by £200,000. This certainly suggests that before long, unless the United States is able to very greatly help us, the daily cost will have reached £8,000,000! At the rate of £7,450,000 per day, the cost of the war for the year to Great Britain alone would be £2,719,000,000. To this would have to be added ordinary expenditure, estimated at £166,000,000, making a total of £2,885,000,000. It is hardly to be assumed that receipts would exceed £600,000,000, which leaves £2,200,000 to be raised by loan. Towards this colossal amount we have apparently some £500,000,000 in hand from the Victory Loan.

Q.—How does it come about that, as the Germans appear to have sunk only some 4,000,000 tons of our shipping, there is such a tonnage shortage in the world?

A.—According to Lloyd George, who explained the situation on February 23rd in the House of Commons, after providing for war exigencies only half of the entire British tonnage was left for the ordinary needs of the nation. When the war broke out Great Britain had about 20,000,000 tons of mercantile shipping. Therefore, only 10,000,000 tons are available for ordinary needs. But most of the German toll has been exacted from this 10,000,000, and it must, therefore, be greatly reduced. Before the war there was available for the carrying of the trade of the world no less than 45,000,000 tons of shipping. The German (5,000,000 tons) and Austrian (1,000,000 tons) have, of course, been entirely withdrawn. France

(2,000,000 tons) and Italy (1,500,000 tons) have commandeered all their shipping. Russia's 1,000,000 tons are locked up, so that only neutral shipping is left. That is to say that the trade of the world must now be carried on by a mercantile marine of a total tonnage of, perhaps, 16,000,000, instead of 45,000,000. No wonder there is a shortage! The home Government has prohibited the import of everything excepting necessities, so that, unfortunately, we may be quite sure that every ship torpedoed by the Germans takes to the bottom supplies urgently required in Great Britain, France or Italy.

Q.—Are the forests at home being felled to provide wood for trench building in France and mining in England?

A.—They are apparently being felled. Lloyd George stated that more labour would be required for the felling and sawing of timber than for the mining of iron ore, which was making a very heavy demand on the labour market. He mentioned that last year we imported 6,400,000 tons of timber into Great Britain. Of this total 2,000,000 were pit props for the collieries, and the bulk of the remainder was used for military purposes in England and France. Unfortunately, we have to remember that trees felled now do not give much wood suitable for use in mining, where they have to utilise seasoned wood, in fact, it is said that none of the trees now being felled in British or French forests will be fit to use for any purpose for at least eighteen months! This probably explains why licences are now being given for the importing of pit props into England, although it was assumed that the import of timber would be entirely prohibited.

Q.—Are the Japanese ship companies making large profits?

A.—According to the latest balance-sheet of the *Nipon Yussen Kaisha*, profit is being made at the rate of almost £4,000,000 per annum. The company has been established for over half a century, but never before, of course, has it made so gigantic a profit. The total paid-up capital is £2,750,000, so that the profit made in one year, if the present rate is maintained, will actually exceed the total capital.

Q.—Is it true that loaves in England must weigh exactly 1 lb.?

A.—A revolution is taking place in Great Britain with regard to the eating customs of the people. It is now illegal for bread to be sold unless it is at least twelve hours old, and in the shape of a one-piece oven bottom loaf, or a tin loaf or a roll, no currant, sultana, or milk bread may be sold, and no sugar may be used in making bread. Bakers are also prohibited from exchanging new bread for old. All bread must be sold by the weight, and the loaves must weigh either 1 lb. or an even number of pounds, and loaves not weighing the prescribed amount may be cut up and sold by weight. Rolls must weigh 2 ozs. Bread may be weighed at any time within 30 hours of the completion of the baking by the Food Controller's officers, who are authorised to weigh bread exposed in shops or in course of delivery by bakers.

Q.—Is it really true that officers actually wear spurs in the trenches in France?

A.—Mr. H. G. Wells, in his book, "War and the Future," says:—"Wherever I went behind the British lines the officers were going about in spurs. These spurs got at last upon my nerves. They became symbolical. They became as grave an insult to the tragedy of the war as if they were false noses. The British officers go for long automobile rides in spurs. They walk about the trenches in spurs. Occasionally I would see a horse; I do not wish to be unfair in this matter, there were riding horses sometimes within two or three miles of the ultimate front, but they were rarely used. It is ridiculous for spurs still to clink about the modern battlefield. What the gross cost of the spurs and horses and trappings of the British army amount to, and how many men are grooming and tending horses who might just as well be ploughing and milking at home, I cannot guess; it must be a total so enormous as seriously to affect the balance of the war. And these spurs and their retention are only the outward and visible symbol of the obstinate resistance of the Anglican intelligence to the clear logic of the present situation."

Q.—My brother has been reported missing. Could you tell me if there is any means of ascertaining whether he has been taken prisoner or not?

A.—You should write to the Red Cross Information Bureau, at the Colonial Mutual Chambers, 60 Market Street, Melbourne, and they will make inquiries for you. It by no means follows that a man reported missing has been killed. There are many cases in which it has been found later that missing men have been taken prisoners by the Germans.

FINANCIAL AND BUSINESS QUARTER.

The next profit of Lever Bros. Ltd. (soap manufacturers) was £1,354,607 in 1916, and £1,265,933 in the preceding year.

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The normal yearly increase of Norwegian tonnage is about 100,000 tons, but during the war the increase has been about 120,000 tons.

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The Russian Minister of Commerce and Industry recently introduced a Bill dealing with the creation of a fleet of Russian merchant ships. It was intended to set aside £10,000,000 for the purpose.

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The cables state that Canada has a large exportable surplus of potatoes. The yield in Canada last year represented 61,229,000 bushels, compared with 62,605,000 bushels in 1915.

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The turnover of Swift and Co., the Chicago meat packing firm, aggregated £115,000,000 during 1916, and £100,000,000 in 1915. The net earnings were £4,093,000 and £2,817,500 respectively.

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After providing £200,000 for excess profits tax, etc., and £125,268 for income tax, etc., the directors of the Cairn Line of Steamships Co. Ltd., recommended the payment of a dividend and bonus of 20 per cent. free of income tax.

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A Japanese cargo steamer of 5050 tons deadweight, built in 1916, has been sold for £47/10/- per ton deadweight. The vessel originally cost about £12 per ton to construct, and has since made huge profits for the owners.

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During the first nine months of the current financial year imports of merchandise to Australia were valued at £61,431,590, and exports at £66,091,776, the trade balance being favourable to the extent of £4,660,186.

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Post Office Savings Bank deposits in New Zealand during 1916, constituted a record, being (at £15,576,408) nearly £2,000,000 greater than in 1915. Withdrawals representing £12,957,420, an increase of £1,500,000 over the total for the previous 12 months.

According to Christiania files, the outstanding feature of the Norwegian shipping industry in 1916 was the amount of new capital invested. New companies were formed with a total capital of 550,000,000 kroner, and the existing companies enlarged their capital by 50,000,000 kroner.

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In December last, 547,683 tons of cargo were carried through the Panama Canal in steamers of 483,814 tons net. The average time in passing through the canal was 14 hours 32 minutes, the quickest trip being made in 6 hours 15 minutes, and the longest in 1 day 7 hours 30 minutes.

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The exigencies of the war have adversely affected the profits of breweries in Australia. For instance, Tooth and Co. Ltd., Sydney, earned £86,185 during the six months ended March 31st, 1917, as against £113,772 and £188,774 in the corresponding term in the two previous years respectively.

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The entrance of America into the war was not responsible for any variation in the exchange rate between London and New York, which remains at 4.76 dollars to the £. Exchange between Paris and New York, however, fluctuated widely during the early part of April, subsequently declining substantially to the advantage of France.

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A Bill is to be introduced in the Swedish Riksdag amending the provisions of the law of 1916, forbidding the transfer of Swedish vessels to foreigners so as to prevent foreign subjects obtaining the control of Swedish shipping by acquiring shares in the owning companies.

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Sir L. Chiozza Money is responsible for the statement that there appeared to be an illusory conception abroad that there is less labour in the shipbuilding yards now than at the end of 1914. The loss of labour in shipyards occurred, he said, in the early months of the war, but a number of the men taken for the army had been released from the colours so that at the moment there were 14,000 more men working than at the time the war broke out.

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Japanese and American trade expansion with Australia has been gained at the ex-

pense of Germany rather than to the detriment of Great Britain or United States. Imports to the Commonwealth from the United Kingdom totalled £38,893,099 in 1916, as compared with £41,327,702 in 1913; from U.S.A. £15,808,773 in 1916, and £10,908,653 in 1913; from Japan £3,239,439 in 1916, and £950,300 in 1913; from Germany, nil in 1916, and £7,029,331 in 1913.

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A few German vessels have been able to carry on trade with Sweden with very satisfactory results to their owners. The Fleusburger Dampfschiffahrt Gesellschaft secured an income from its five steamers of 880,000 marks, against nil in the previous year. The net profit was 581,281 marks, and a dividend of 15 per cent. was declared. The Oceana Co. earned a profit of 279,114 marks, and paid a dividend of 10 per cent. The Horn Dampfschiffahrt Reederei, of Lubeck, made a record profit of 1,500,000 marks, also paying a dividend of 10 per cent.

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Australian miners are not the only ones in the Empire who are insisting upon the payment to them of a war bonus. In Great Britain the question of war bonuses to miners is continually before the public, and the men do not appear to be meeting with insuperable difficulties in the way of a fulfilment of their demands, especially when such demands appear to be consistent with reason. Quite recently the Coal Conciliation Board for England and North Wales agreed to an increase in the war bonus to be paid to the workmen employed at the pits of the area from 13.8 per cent. to 18 per cent., an increase of 4.2 per cent. The decision affects some 350,000 workmen, and means an addition to the weekly wage bill of about £40,000, or some two millions sterling a year! The increase in the war bonus of 4.2 per cent. means an addition varying from 3d. per day to boys, to 6d. per day to coal hewers, and the higher paid grades of workmen. The agreement to increase the war bonus was signed on the day previous to the coal mines passing under the control of the State.

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The Government of India has offered, and the British Government has accepted, a contribution of £100,000,000 to the cost of the war. In 1914, 1915 and 1916, the Indian authorities did not propose a direct money contribution to the cost of the war because, in their opinion, the situation at that time did not permit it. In 1914 their finances had been most gravely dislocated by the war; they were faced by a large decrease in revenue, and by a serious drain on their balances, which caused them to incur £14,000,000 of temporary debt. In 1915, their Budget showed a prospect of a serious deficit. In 1916 considerable additions to taxation were necessary in order to meet what appeared at that time to be the prospect of a coming deficit. The year 1916-17, now about to close, has been one of great financial prosperity for the Government of India, which has enabled them to clear off their temporary indebtedness, and the prospects of ordinary revenue and ordinary expenditure are such as to enable them now to make, with the help of additional taxation, specially raised for the purpose, the contribution referred to above, one which will be utilised by the British authorities in such a manner (particularly regarding the exchange question) as will prove the gift to be extremely utilitarian as well as sentimental.

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The various Governments in Australia would do well to take a lesson from our Indian friends. Despite the complaints in financial quarters in Britain regarding the recent South Australian loan conversion, and the Commonwealth loan for the domestic requirements of the States, another appeal is being made to British investors, this time by the Government of New South Wales. The home Government has come in for a good deal of criticism for allowing the State mentioned to compete in the open market at such a critical period in the nation's history, and, as stated in these columns a month ago, it is a grave reflection upon our much-vaunted patriotism, our continually attacking the British financial market for the money necessary to pay our way. There is certainly not what might be termed a trade boom in the Commonwealth; on the other hand one does not need to search very diligently to discover a prodigality in public and private expenditure. Let us help to "win the war" by meeting our financial obligations in a truly patriotic manner.

PSYCHOLOGY AND ORGANISED INDUSTRY.

By J. A. Butler.

Recently, when some of the Melbourne telephone operatives were narrating in an industrial court the trying nature of their duties, the question naturally suggested itself: Would the bad effects on health be less if effectual steps were taken to select girls whose nervous temperament and general physical qualifications were likely to make the work come easy to them? It would, no doubt, be simple, with malice aforethought, to select obviously excitable young ladies, spend money on their training, waste a few years of the lives of hundreds of unfit appointees, and reduce to chaos every telephone system affected. What of the converse? Are there any means by which probationers could be picked out, nearly all of whom would prove suitable? It may be that officials in the Commonwealth civil service, and in the various State departments connected with this kind of labour, are engaged in a quiet way in learning some of the things that are known by experts on this subject, especially in America and Germany. The ordinary man in the street, however, is justified in fearing that if such work is being attended to by the legislators and others who are supposed to help in the rational government of Australia, and in the development of its wealth, and the proper employment of its people, they manage to keep this part of their state craft fairly dark. They certainly indulge in no indecent gush about their up-to-the-minute modernity.

It is true that even in America, where there has been considerable investigation into vocational training, the results of experiments for the selection of the right employees for different occupations are not widely known. It is also quite conceivable that better devices are possible than those which have as yet been employed. Nevertheless, the goal aimed at is so important that the methods which have already been developed must be worth studying. Australia, unfortunately, does not seem interested in the matter, or indeed in any matters that are calculated to improve personal efficiency and industrial organisation. For instance, the better management of our primary and other industries is left almost entirely to the rule of thumb practices of the individual. And this, notwithstanding that inquiries forced on Great Britain by the war have revealed amazing results from scientific management and methods in agriculture in Central Europe, as well as a much larger output per workman in factories in America than in England. Nevertheless, we find everyone in the Commonwealth going on his way as though the results in question had not happened. We are too young a country industrially to be burdened with "dust-laden precedents," but at the same time it looks as though we are a long way off the selection of legislators and officials likely to adopt Mr. Lloyd George's advice, and "find out the best methods for ourselves in the face of the searching facts of which we knew nothing prior to the war."

FINDING SUITABLE EMPLOYEES.

The efficiency engineer in America who is called in to advise on factory work, office organisation, mining, farming, and other activities, evinces greater interest each year in vocational classes in the schools. This, no doubt, has helped to stimulate inquiries in the United States as to whether the psychologists in universities can improve the tests for vocational selection, that is, for discovering young people's proclivities. The object is to give suitable instruction to individual boys and girls in the ordinary schools, and also after they leave the ordinary schools, to fit them for occupations for which they are adapted, and at the same time to direct them towards these occupations.

During the past ten or fifteen years, the little understood science of the mind has been used to some slight extent to ascertain the fitness of applicants for certain posi-

tions. It is also interesting to find that a few large industrial establishments have sought aid from the psychologists in the selection of suitable employees. Previously there were no systematic efforts that we know of to apply the experimental results of psychology to the needs of society, and few people dreamed of this science being utilised for finding the best appointees for different callings. The utilisation of psychologists for the discovery of industrial fitness is, of course, still in the experimental stage, but the subject promises to be rich in results. Vocational selection is only one of the many national efficiency subjects to which the world is now devoting attention. But it is an important item, for it may result in checking the drift of hundreds of thousands of wrong units into the wrong class of work, the present loss from which it is impossible to estimate.

PHYSICAL DEFECTS FOR CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS.

The mere word "psychology" may alarm many people. Formerly, the exponents of this science hardly thought of associating it with material things like national efficiency. The briefest reflection, however, on what might be done by proper attention to mental and nervous attributes, ought to convince any thinker of the importance of observing these attributes carefully, especially in young people. No one ever questions the wisdom of keeping boys with weak lungs away from industries that are dangerous for the lungs. The advantage of physical fitness for a job is recognised everywhere. Nervous and mental fitness, however, are not generally studied simply because the subject has not been properly brought before people. Nevertheless, it is clearly just as decisive for the welfare of a country, and for the future life happiness of those who leave school, that everyone should turn to some form of work to which his psychological traits are adjusted, or at least that he be kept away from those callings in which his mental qualities and disposition would make a truly successful advance impossible. It has been established beyond all doubt by the psychologists that the ordinary individual knows very little of his own mental functions.

To know the effects of various trades on the health of those who work in them, statistics must be well kept, and there is no doubt the whole British Empire will wake up to what is necessary in this regard as in others, after the lessons of the war. The usefulness of reliable statistics of all matters relating to industry can hardly be over-stated, but the figures must be accurate. The present clumsiness in making returns, and tabulating them, requires attention, and our yearly publications of these valuable records ought to become free of mathematical gymnastics, and contain simple, convincing facts, which the community will feel are based on correct returns. In addition to other benefits, this will make it possible to warn people against an inrush into a trade where the figures show a coming over-supply of workers.

EXPERIMENTS AT UNIVERSITIES.

In America the psychologists hope to remove the subject of vocational selection from the dilettante discussions of amateurs or the mere impression of school teachers, and establish it on a scientific basis. The whole psychological inquiry no doubt originated from the German scientists who were imported for the University staffs of America before the war. There are many excellent things in the educational system of Germany, as all the world now seems to know. What is not so well known is that there are many underlying tendencies in the German schools which it would be well to avoid. The chief of these has been the schooling of 97 per cent. of the inhabitants of Germany from their babyhood upwards into a condition of almost helpless docility and obedience to a few controlling disciplinarians. To put it in round figures, out of ten million children of school age at a given time, all but 260,000 are in the people's, or lower schools, which are free. The quarter of a million in the higher schools in which fees are charged, provide recruits for the professions, upper civil service, and the controlling classes generally. When a child has once passed the age of ten, he practically never moves from the lower to the higher schools, and it is estimated that not one boy in ten thousand who completes the lower school course, ending at the age of 14, ever gets to a university. This simple beginning in the obedience of the German proletariat to a ruling aristocracy, would appear to be quite worth noticing as an ingredient in the character of the German nation, and it is strange that in the cataracts of ink that have been poured out by way of information connected with the war, it has hardly ever been mentioned. However, there are many lessons that can be learned from the German educationalists, and there is no reason why we should not profit by what is good in other people's methods.

(Continued on page 526.)

A WOMAN'S NOTEBOOK.

We are constantly receiving letters and requests to include in STEAD'S some pages devoted more particularly to women's interests. The magazine goes to at least 50,000 homes all over Australasia, and many women are on our subscription lists. It is certainly reasonable to assume that our readers would be interested in such a section. The increase in size in STEAD'S makes it possible for us to reserve a few pages wherein to publish useful hints and practical information, which will, we hope, prove of value to the housewife, and to women generally. We invite the co-operation of our readers to make this a really useful section. We want your best ideas and suggestions for every phase of the home-woman's activities. You know some labour-saving device, some helpful hint—why not pass it on? We will pay half-a-crown for every "discovery" you send which we publish. Naturally, we could not accept ideas which have already appeared in print, or those which are obviously not original.

THE FIRST WOMAN CONGRESSMAN.

For the first time a woman has taken her seat in Congress as a member of the American Parliament, and already her influence is being felt. Women have sat in Parliament in other countries, in Finland and Sweden, and have had seats on the London County Council, which is almost a Parliament in itself, having in its care a greater number of people than inhabit the whole of Australia. But never before has a woman been elected to a Parliament which controlled the destinies of a mighty nation. No other Parliament in the world governs so numerous a people as does that which meets in Washington. It is true the Duma has nominally charge of Russia's 180,000,000, and the Chinese Parliament is supposed to be in control of the countless millions of China, but neither of these bodies has anything like the power of Congress, which rules over close on 100,000,000 highly educated people.

Miss Jeanette Rankin was elected as Congressman by the State of Montana, although she ran as a Republican, and that State went overwhelmingly Democratic. She won out at the election against seven men candidates, and secured a majority of 7000 votes over the closest one! Although one of the greatest leaders in the woman suffrage movement, in the United States, she is an exceedingly womanly woman. She was born in Missoula, her father being a Scotch-Canadian who had taken up ranching in the days when Montana was largely unexplored. She is a little woman, a girl one is almost inclined to call her; she dresses well and looks well; young enough to be attractive and old enough to be taken seriously—thirty-three. She was trained by her mother in household duties, and her teas are famous in Missoula.

"Social welfare legislation is my chief concern," said Miss Rankin recently. "I have had a good deal to do with a Children's Home Society in Seattle, and I know the needs of the youngsters. That work gave me an insight into the needs of babies, older children and young adults, and it is for them that I shall work especially." She brings to the floor of the House an entirely new view-point, one not dominated by ideas of post-office appropriations, harbour extensions, increases in the size of battle-cruisers and scout ships, or by plans for this or that military service, but actuated by a keen realisation of the needs of babies, older children, young adults and women.

She is an expert parliamentarian, having been in charge of suffrage bills in many of the States of the Union, and having been largely responsible for putting suffrage through the Montana Legislature. She graduated from the University of Montana, then went to Seattle to become the official home-finder for that city's hapless waifs, and it was there that she realised the need for woman suffrage. She was convinced that the dire misery she daily witnessed was to a great extent the result of legislation which failed to consider women and children as a part of the body politic, or to appreciate the justness of their appeal for assistance from the oppression of bigoted laws and antiquated enactments, on one extreme, and the total lack of legal protection on the other.

There is no doubt that countless thousands of women are placing their hope, faith and trust in her, leaving in her hands the protection of their children. It is significant that the first decision she was called

upon to make in Congress was on the question as to whether the United States should go to war or not. In casting her vote against her country plunging into the struggle she made a most notable declaration which added considerably to her reputation and to the esteem with which she is already regarded in that august assembly.

FRENCH WOMEN AND THE WAR.

Gertrude Atherton contributes an exceedingly interesting article to *The Delineator*, telling of what the women of France have done in the great war. Great numbers of young French women, accustomed to a life of ease and affluence, have thrown themselves into the work of caring for the wives of the soldiers at the front, or the widows of those who have fallen. The majority of these former leaders of French society have themselves lost their husbands, and, says Miss Atherton, one wonders if these patriotic people will have anything left of their fortunes if the war continues a few years longer.

When Miss Atherton arrived in Paris, in May, 1916, she was surprised to see that almost every woman she met had on a new frock. She was told that they had just been driven to their dressmakers for the first time since the declaration of war, as their clothes were almost falling from their backs. When we remember that French women regarded it as their first duty, in the terrible days of August, 1914, to feed and clothe the poor women so suddenly thrown out of work, or left without support, and with large families, we get some idea of what this long abstinence from the dressmaker must have meant. Scarcely a well-to-do woman in Paris had more than one street dress left in her wardrobe after doing what she could for the refugees who poured in from Belgium and Northern France in 1914.

Madame Pierre Goujon and Baroness Lejeune, both widowed early in the war, conceived a plan that would benefit other widows, poor women without the alleviations of wealth and social eminence, many of them a prey to black despair.

Calling in other young widows of their own circle to help (the number was already appalling), they went about their task in a business-like way, opening offices in the Rue Vezeley, which were subsequently moved to 20 Rue de Madrid. When I saw these headquarters in May, 1916, the oeuvre was a year old and in running order. In one room were the high chests of narrow drawers one sees in offices and public libraries. These were for card indexes, and each drawer contained the dossier of a widow who had applied for assistance or had been discovered suffering in lonely pride by a member of the committee. Each dossier included a methodical account of the age, condition and number of children of the applicant, who must furnish proof that her husband is killed or "missing," and a statement of the manner in which she may, if helped, support herself. Branches of this great work—Association d'Aide aux Veuves Militaires de la Grande Guerre—have been established in every department of France.

Smooth as this oeuvre appeared on the surface, it had not been easy to establish, and every day brought its frictions and obstacles. The French temperament is perhaps the most difficult in the world to deal with, even by the French themselves. Our boasted individuality is merely in the kindergarten stage of development compared with the finished production in France. Even the children are far more complex and intractable than our. They have definite opinions on the subject of life, character, and the disposition of themselves, at the age of six.

Madame Goujon told me that every widow in need of help, no matter how worthy, had to be approached with far more tact than possible donors, and her idiosyncrasies studied and accepted, before anything could be done with her, much less for her.

Moreover, there was the great problem of the women who would not work. These were either of the industrial class, or of that petite bourgeoisie whose husbands, called to the colours, had been small clerks and had made just enough to keep their usually childless wives in comfort, with the aid of one servant. These women, whose economical parents had married them into their own class, or possibly a step above, with the aid of a small dot, never had done any work to speak of, and many of them manifested the strongest possible aversion to working, even under the spur of necessity. They had a franc a day from the Government and much casual help during the first year of the war, when money was still abundant, from charitable members of the noblesse or the haute bourgeoisie.

The women of the industrial classes, on the other hand, appear to have done fairly well out of the war. They receive a franc a day from the Government, and in Paris 75 centimes in addition for each child. In the provinces they get 50 centimes per child. In the lower classes of France the families are amongst the largest in the world. Five, ten, fifteen, sometimes even nineteen children! For the first time these women had complete control of their incomes, small though they were, and every centime that came in was theirs to administer as they

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pleased, and with the French woman's wonderful faculty for managing the centime went a long way.

The mayoress of a small town near Paris told me that she had heard these women say more than once they didn't care how long the war lasted, particularly as, owing to the prevalence of alcoholism during the last ten or fifteen years, the men often had beaten them; their sojourn in the trenches was a welcome relief. There is a story of one man with thirteen children who was called to the colours at the outbreak of the war, and whose wife received allocation amounting to more than her husband's former earnings. It was some time after the war began that the rule was made exempting from service every man with more than six children. When it did go into effect, the fathers of large flocks hastened home, anticipating a joyful reunion. But the wife of this man, at least, received him with dismay and ordered him to enlist—within the hour.

THE "MOVIES" WITH THE GLAMOUR OFF!

Dazzled by the stories of the fabulous salaries given to leading "Movie" artists, thousands of girls in America try to get on the Movie stage. They find that to even secure a position as an extra is a matter of great difficulty, and that the remuneration seldom exceeds £5 a week. The usual reward for days of waiting is a walking on part which brings in 4s. a day and may not last more than one!

The waiting is a dreary business, and the deadly part of the whole thing is that no applicant can possibly get to see the director who decides on her ability. If she attempts to do so she is immediately dismissed. Mr. Homer Croy gives some interesting particulars about the Movie business in *McCall's Magazine*, which will certainly discourage many who have dreams of starring on the films.

There is a little office set off by itself where the aspirant must make her application. It is a small, dreary hole with a large "yard" of its own; and here the aspiring star must spend much of her time, since the little office is soon over-flooded by the applying crowd. And this outdoor waiting-place, minus any conveniences, but with plenty of standing-room, goes by the heartless name of "the pen" in the profession.

At one plant in Los Angeles are the names and addresses of three thousand people, who are ready, at any minute, to answer the call for extra help.

When the director wants extra help he sends the employment agent into the pen to select the type required.

When the employer has culled her from the throng, and takes her inside the sacred gate, it does not mean that the position is hers—he may have chosen half a dozen others for the same insignificant role. If this is so, then she, with the competing six, appears before the director's assistant. She has not yet seen the director. The assistant looks them over appraisingly, and sends all back, say, with the exception of herself and one other girl.

She has a weary wait until the director himself comes on the scene. He fires a volley of questions at her, then suddenly, rudely, he turns his back, and begins talking with the other girl. Very soon, she, herself goes back to the yard with a sorry attempt at nonchalance.

Every day she has to come and wait the weary morning through, until the director has chosen all the extra help he needs. She does not dare miss a morning, for that would probably be her opportunity. And all this time, while she is waiting, she must, of course, live and eat!

When finally a girl does happen to get a small place, it may not consist of anything more important than a walking part, or one that requires her simply to listen at a keyhole.

As soon as she is selected, she is shown into the costume-room where she must make up—she brings her own cosmetics, of course—and receives her clothes. A careful record is kept of each piece, and every garment has to be checked back when it is returned—in sort of prison fashion. Moreover, before her turn comes to perform even the most minor parts, she may often have to wait around all day with her make-up on. And for this she receives the huge sum of a dollar a day—when she works!

Even after the aspiring actress has had an appearance or two in pictures, and the director has come to know her, or she may even have become one of the envied "extras," it does not mean that she will get on regularly. An "extra" person is a step higher up than the people in the "pen"; she has a dressing-room, even if she has to share it with three or four other girls, and she must be on hand all day whether she works or not.

If her work is good and the director likes her, she becomes a regular "extra," is assigned a dressing-room, and is put on a regular salary. This amounts to about twenty dollars a week at the most. If she is especially good, and can do a line of work that fits in with the kind of plays put on by that particular company, she will be advanced to a special "stock," with something like a 25-dollar-a-week salary.

Of course, if a young woman proves to have unusual talent—rather, if she is exceptional—she is put under contract and given a big salary. Needless to say, however, such success is little short of phenomenal, and few—not excepting even some of your favourite movie heroines—reach the contract stage.

DISCOVERIES.

To relieve a swollen face caused by cold or a gumboil, take a jug of boiling water three-quarters full, to which has been added three tablespoons of vinegar. Press the cheek close over the top of the jug. Although difficult to bear at first, the face will soon become accustomed to the heat. Repeat this every few hours and the swelling will gradually disappear. I myself am very subject to a swollen face, and have found this an excellent remedy.—M.D.M.

. . . .

Have you ever noticed how unpleasantly sticky even a new pack of playing cards becomes at the seashore after only a little use? If you lay the cards on a newspaper, sprinkle with talcum powder, and thoroughly rub it into the cards, they become as good as new.—A.H.

. . . .

In order to avoid any marks being left on the right side of material of blouse or skirt after being pressed with an iron, cut in halves (lengthwise) an old rolling-pin, cover with linenette or calico, lay flat side on the table, and put seam on it. The seam, being put on the rounded surface, prevents the iron from resting on more than the part where the seam is stitched, and also has the appearance of looking much better pressed.—Mrs. M.

. . . .

When stewing or boiling any kind of meat, do not add salt to it until about five minutes before serving. Meat cooked in this way will not become hard, neither will it need so long stewing as the ordinary method.—M.W.

. . . .

A pleasant substitute for the disagreeable-smelling moth-balls may be made by mixing together one ounce each of cinnamon, cloves, nutmeg, mace, caraway seeds, and tonquin beans, and six ounces of powdered orris-root. When spring comes and the weary housewife gets ready to store away the winter clothing, she should have these ingredients on hand. The mixture should be put into small bags and the bags laid among the clothing. They will impart a pleasant perfume and will prove an excellent moth preventive.—M.B.

. . . .

Remove part of the pulp from half a potato, and place the piece, hollow side down, on the earth in the pot of an ailing plant. Do not water the plant for two or three days; then examine the potato. If the plant's illness is caused by worms or other crawlers, you will find them in the potato, attracted by the moisture.—P.S.

For Tasty Sandwiches.

Wash and cut up two pounds of liver, cover with cold water, let come to a boil, and simmer until tender. Press through a potato-ricer; add one-half cupful of butter, one-half teaspoonful of salt, and a dash of pepper. Beat the above mixture to a smooth paste. Mince a good-sized onion and a few sprigs of parsley and stir into the mashed liver. Put in jars in a cold place and it will keep for some time.

When You are Whipping Cream.

Have you ever said bad words about cream that wouldn't whip? I began experimenting to find out why it sometimes refused to whip. I found that richness, age and cold are essential. By richness is meant 30 to 40 per cent. cream; by age, at least twenty-four hours old, better, thirty-six; cold does not have to be explained, but it is important. Here is my discovery: Two drops of lemon juice added will relieve the difficulty. It makes the fat more viscous, which gives it the power to become distended with air. It has the same effect as the lactic acid which develops in cream upon standing. A very little lemon juice is sufficient, two or three drops to a cupful of cream, or half a teaspoonful to a quart. This slight amount will not flavour the cream nor tend to sour it. There will be no more trouble with frothiness, and a "whipped" cream will soon result.

Why Meringues Fall.

Meringues on pies and puddings often fall because they are applied while the dish is still hot. Always cool a pie or pudding slightly before attempting to add the meringue. Then drop the meringue on by spoonfuls; place the dish in a moderately heated oven where, with opened door, it may be sufficiently browned within twenty minutes. A helpful preliminary step in preparing a frothy, attractive frosting is to beat thoroughly the whites of the eggs used until they are light and dry before adding the pulverised sugar to them

Frying Pancakes.

Make a little dauber by tying a small handful of salt in a piece of thin material, as India linen. Rub the hot iron griddle with this, and no grease will be needed for frying your pancakes—also the griddle will not smoke.

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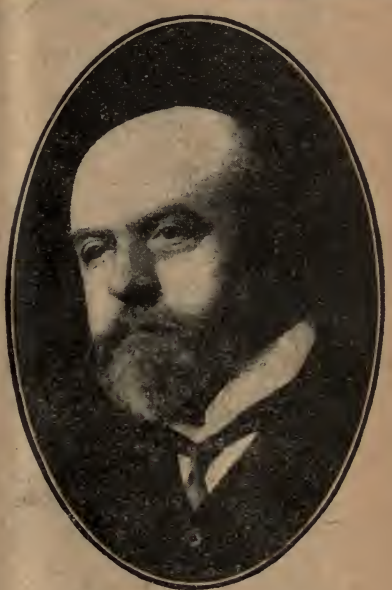
Yours faithfully,
GEORGE WALTERS.



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ESPERANTO: THE HELP-LANGUAGE.

Imagine a town where the inhabitants represent not one race, but four, where they speak not one language, but four. Imagine these four races to be the Russian, the German, the Polish, and the Jewish, and to be normally and chronically on bad terms with each other, and then you have an idea of the town of Bielostock, in Russian Poland, the birthplace of Louis Lazarus Zamenhof, the inventor of the international language, Esperanto, whose death was recently announced in the cables. It is not surprising that in such surroundings the idea of a common neutral language for the purpose of amicable relations should take root in the mind of a sensitive and thoughtful child, or that he should conceive such a language as being capable of doing away for ever with the misunderstandings and the racial hatred that lead to wars and civil turmoils. While this idealist side of the international language is nowadays largely discounted, there are a goodly and growing number of very sensible people making use of the Esperanto language for the purely practical end of intercourse with those whose language they do not know. The ache of incomprehensibility is being killed in many parts of the world by this lingual homocea which instantly touches the spot.

And this applies in war-time as in time of peace. Before the war one could travel over all Europe and America, and over those parts of the other continents most affected by globe-trotters, using no other language than this simple Esperanto of Zamenhof. The traveller had simply to address himself to the Esperanto consul or the Esperanto Society of the city or town, or even village, that he was visiting, and he would be met on arrival, conducted to a hotel, provided with an interpreter, guarded against the wiles of such as seek to deceive the guileless stranger from afar, and generally looked after in all the ways that a traveller needs. More than this. He would be placed on friendly terms with a circle of people typical of the district he was visiting, he would have opportunities of meeting them on common ground, of seeing their inner life, of learning their hopes and aspirations and fears, of knowing them in a way that would scarcely be possible even to the traveller who knew their national or local language never so well, and almost impossible to the traveller who did not know it at all. For there is among Esperantists a wonderful freemasonry that has no secrets and no emblems, save the green star badge of those who choose to wear it.

In war-time, the usefulness of a simple and easy neutral language like Esperanto has been brought home to many people. On the battlefield, not a few instances are recorded of chance meetings between Esperantists of different nationalities, whether Allied or opposed, and these have frequently smoothed the stony path, whether of a prisoner in the hands of the enemy, of a comrade-in-arms, or of a wounded man who could not explain just what ailed him. In this last connection the French War Ministry has authorised the distribution of many thousands of Red Cross Guides in Esperanto to doctors and nurses attending wounded soldiers of foreign nationality. In the tracing of missing soldiers and interned civilians the Universal Esperanto Association, which has its headquarters at Geneva, has done remarkable work. In one case a Melbourne resident, whose son was studying in Germany when the war broke out, enlisted the help of the High Commissioner in London and of the United States Consular Service, both of which were unsuccessful; but on applying to the Association mentioned, the son was quickly found and placed in communication with his relatives. In many of the internment camps soldiers and civilians are studying the language, and have already become proficient.

Trade after the war will necessitate a knowledge of foreign languages; the commercial traveller who can talk the language of his "prospects" freely and easily and with confidence (but does a commercial traveller ever lack confidence?) will get a better reception, and will "get beside them" better than the one who has to go around with an interpreter. The business man who will not be debarred by barriers of language from opening up new markets in foreign parts will have many opportunities that will never come to the man of one language and one only. Consequently, business people in various towns, from Vladivostock to Buenos Ayres, and from Edinburgh to Genoa, are learning Esperanto for the purpose of peaceful commercial warfare after the conclusion of the present war. Much use has been made of Esperanto in commercial circles in the past; it is predicted that after the war its use and its usefulness will be many times increased.

PSYCHOLOGY AND ORGANISED INDUSTRY.

(Continued from page 520.)

The question of testing the fitness of girls applying for telephone exchange work in America was brought before the psychological authorities of Harvard University by a large telephone company, which desired to reduce the expense it was incurring year after year by training probationers, and having to recommend a large percentage later on to find some other means of livelihood. It is a common experience with American telephone companies that work in an Exchange cannot be satisfactorily done where one telephone girl has to handle more than 225 calls an hour. This figure, however, is often exceeded. A skilful distribution of pauses and ample arrangements for rest, together with very excellent hygienic conditions, make it possible for fit persons to be able to continue this work without over-fatigue for eight or nine hours a day. The work, however, can be carried on well only by a relatively small number of nervous systems. Partial failure does not lead to fatal accidents, as in the case of deficient ship's officers or motor drivers, but it does lead to fatigue, and, finally, to a nervous breakdown of the employees, and to confusion in the service. In one large American company during the first half-year of service, in which the employees still worked entirely under supervision, more than a third of those who had originally entered and been paid while they were trained, left. This was partly on account of unfitness and want of ability, partly through over-fatigue or similar reasons. It is not surprising, therefore, that the company approached a university to ask if it would be interesting, from a scientific point of view, for the psychological laboratory to examine how far the mental fitness of the employees could be determined beforehand by experimental means.

The test for memory consisted of reading to the whole class at first two numbers of four digits, then two of five digits, then two of six digits, and so on, up to figures of 12 digits, and demanding that they be written down as soon as a signal was given. After this, in order to test her power of attention, everyone of the thirty ladies in the class-room received the first page of the same newspaper of that morning. Emphasis is laid on the fact that it was a new paper, as the newness of the content was to secure the desired distraction of the attention. Each girl had to cross out with a pencil every "a" in the text for six minutes. After a certain time a bell signal was given, and each then had to begin a new column. The examiner thus knew how many letters were correctly crossed out in the time, and how many overlooked, and how the recognition and the oversight were distributed in the various periods of the test, as marked by the bell signals. Some persons crossed out many, but overlooked many. Others overlooked hardly any of the "a's," but proceeded very slowly, so that the total number of the crossed-out letters was small. Some did poor work at the start and quickly improved, and their attention remained at a high level. Others started well, but after a short while their attention flagged. Further experiments were devised for testing space perception, general intelligence, and naturally anthropometric details were studied, such as length of fingers, rapidity of breathing, rapidity of pulse, acuity of vision and hearing, distinctness of pronunciation, and so on.

The above experiments were but the beginning of an investigation, and it could hardly be expected that at such first approach the best and most suitable methods would be hit upon. But the general subject of advising young people as to the vocation they are adapted for is in America now based on data, the collection of which has long passed the experimental stage. The aim at Harvard was to induce all the nation's universities to try to get the whole question put on a thoroughly scientific footing, and leave as little as possible to the erroneous judgment of any individual school teacher. School teachers were to be properly taught how to gauge the various proclivities in those under their charge.

In his book, "Psychology and Industrial Efficiency," published in America in 1913, Professor Munsterberg wrote: "A continuation of the work will surely lead to better combination of test experiments and to better adjusted plans, but it is most desirable that such studies be undertaken at various places according to various schemes, in order to come nearer to the solution of a problem which is economically important to the whole public, and to many thousands of employers. As soon as methods are really perfected, it would seem not at all impossible that, by a short experiment of a few minutes, thousands of applicants might be saved long months of study and training which are completely wasted.

Mr. Butler's next article will tell of the tests devised to select competent motormen for trams.

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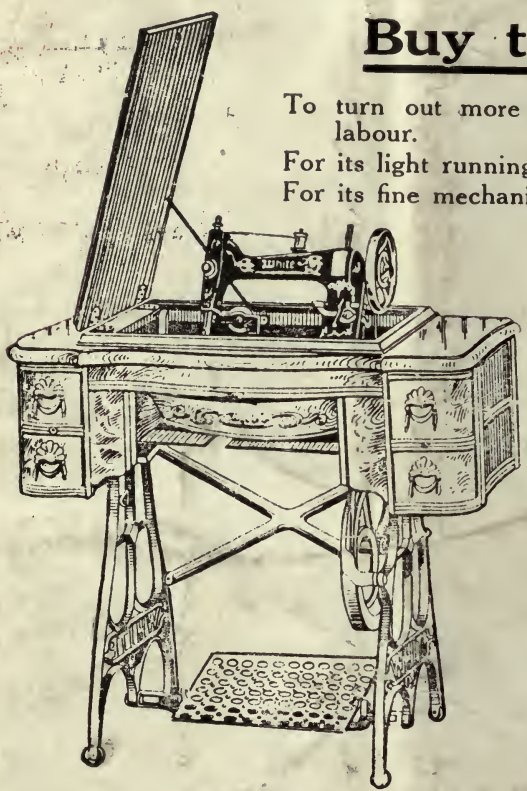

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